The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 6, 1905.

The Week.

What is now passing in Russia, in the playing for position of all the elements contending for revolution, peaceably or by violence, resembles a fleeting phantasmagoria. Strangest of all turns and spectacles is that of the Black Sea fleet infected with anarchism. The mutiny on the *Kniaz Potemkin* and murder of officers; the landing at Odessa of the dead body of an alleged victim of naval brutality, to be buried as if on a funeral pyre amid the flaming warehouses and shipping of the port fired by a demoniacal mob; the terrorizing of the port by the man-of-war; the failure of the rest of the fleet to molest it; its seeking provisions and coal in a Rumanian port and forcible expulsion, and its present piratic wandering in the Black Sea flying the red flag—this is the very climax of weirdness and mystery. Still, now as before, in spite of fresh sympathetic outbreaks at distant points, the laboring autocracy appears to get the upper hand of revolt, while arranging the constitution of the peace commission, whose members are already selected and will begin negotiations in August. We cannot hope to see, in the meantime, any cessation of violent endeavor not only to overthrow the existing form of despotism, but to put in its place polities which would leave the hapless Russians wearing "the name of Freedom graven on a heavier chain."

That intellectual detachment which was at the bottom of Mr. Hay's broad views on world politics appears most clearly in a private letter on the San Domingo matter, printed on Monday by the *Sun*. Throughout the note Mr. Hay maintains admirably the tone of a loyal Minister willing to accept personal responsibility for both the excessive zeal of his subordinates and the hotheadedness of his chief, but everywhere it is evident that the San Domingo business was none of his, and that he held the whole transaction in a certain scorn. The Dillingham protocol he had never seen until it was published. He is willing to admit that there was "what might be called a critical state of things in San Domingo," but immediately adds, "if such a phrase is applicable to a country where every day has its crisis." But more interesting than these casual observations about Mr. Roosevelt's pet cause is Mr. Hay's general characterization of the worth of the Dominican treaty, which we parallel with certain expressions of the President's in his message of February 15:

MR. HAY.	MR. ROOSEVELT.
"If they [the Senate] reject it [the Santo Domingo protocol], I do not think it would be a great disaster;	"I call attention to the urgent need of prompt action on this matter. . . . It will be unfortunate from every standpoint if we fail to grasp this opportunity, for such failure will probably mean increasing revolutionary violence in Santo Domingo, and very possibly foreign complications in addition."
and it would certainly relieve the Executive of a vast amount of labor which is now imposed upon it by the claims of American citizens throughout all Latin America."	"The United States . . . must . . . actively intervene to protect the contracts and concessions of its citizens. . . . This course would render the United States the insurer of all the speculative risks of its citizens in public securities and franchises of Santo Domingo."

We need not labor the contrast between Mr. Hay's desire to wash his hands of the unfortunate American investor in Latin-American ventures, and the President's cheerful proposal of a world-wide underwriting of all American speculations in weak nations. It is clear that more than once Mr. Hay waived his better judgment for the sake of peace; it emphasizes our sense of loss to realize that his restraining influence in our foreign policy has disappeared.

If Secretary Taft did not try very hard to conceal his vexation with Chief Engineer Wallace for resigning just at this crisis in the affairs of the Panama Canal, he certainly had ground for irritation. Mr. Wallace does not figure to advantage. He bases his resignation solely on a tempting offer from a private corporation. Without a grievance Mr. Wallace must be considered one who took a matter of loyalty lightly. We are, nevertheless, not in sympathy with Secretary Taft's method of announcing his decision to dismiss Mr. Wallace. Apparently, the bulk of his statement consists of stenographic notes of a conversation with Mr. Wallace on Sunday week. We are getting some extraordinary state papers from Washington these days, and the blue pencil is sadly needed, both in the White House and in the departments. Secretary Taft has had burdens and tribulations enough, in all conscience, to put his nerves on edge, but that is no reason why his temper over Mr. Wallace's defection should be unveiled to the public. It was unkind to himself and undignified in a high officer of the Government. The same end could have been obtained, and the rebuke to Mr. Wallace been made a hundred times more stinging, if the facts had been put into twenty-five or fifty lines. Though we are a world power, we have a number of things to learn from other nations in similar positions, and one of these is the proper method of announcing just such matters as the change at Panama. Dignity and brevity should have made impossible the publication of Mr. Taft's repeated complaint that Mr. Wallace's action was so ill-timed as to threaten to interfere with the Secretary's trip to the Philippines, as of his further remark about the President's right "to discharge an unfaithful commission"—a needless slur upon the first Commission, now extinct.

The sudden appointment of ex-Ambassador Porter as Senior Special Ambassador in connection with the translation of John Paul Jones's putative remains, and the consequent reduction of Mr. Loomis to the grade of Junior Special Ambassador, proves that it is never too late to mend, that you never can tell, that second thoughts are best, that one must look before he leaps, or any other trite morality which may apply to a headstrong President. It is a welcome, if somewhat ridiculous, exit from an untenable position. In his eagerness to do honor to a favorite under fire, Mr. Roosevelt clean forgot Horace Porter, to whose zeal the recovery of Paul Jones's body, or of one "equally as good," is due. In this anxiety to pay a compliment to Mr. Loomis, Mr. Roosevelt came very near, also, to affronting the French Government. As the matter stands, Gen. Porter will have charge over all ceremonies up to the time of the consignment of the remains for transport. Since the mortal remains of a naval hero are not recognized collateral, they will be reasonably safe in the hands of Loomis, "Acting."

The Federal Grand Jury in Chicago, which has just indicted twenty-one officials of the Beef Trust, has declined to follow Mr. Roosevelt's advise and proceed against the corporations only. Evidently its members agreed with Messrs. Judson and Harmon that guilt must always be personal—and the country as a whole will applaud their decision. At last we shall ascertain whether a corporation can violate the laws, and the individuals who direct its actions escape scot free, as did Paul Morton. The whole anti-Trust campaign hinges upon the conduct of this case. By Mr. Roosevelt's direction the Federal law officers are forbidden to take action against Trust magnates or those who grant railroad rebates until they have first tried to stop the objectionable practices, or unless there is clear legal proof of their guilt. As they were not allowed in the Paul Morton case to take the only course which would judi-

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cially bring out his guilt or innocence, their hands are practically tied. Mr. Roosevelt did, however, hint that the Attorney-General might take action if the Chicago jury acted, because, as he wisely added, if they should indict, "it will be because in their judgment legal evidence of the violation of the injunction has been laid before them." Well, the jury has indicted, and the Attorney-General's office may now render such aid as it can. It ought to bend all its energies to the task before it in Chicago, for, if this process fails, the corrupt corporations which defy the laws the country over will more than ever feel themselves superior to them, while their officials will be convinced that Mr. Roosevelt is right, and that guilt is impersonal.

When the "Dawes Commission" organized for allotment work in 1898, after several years of missionary effort spent in bringing the tribes to agree that isolation was no longer possible, it was not anticipated that the task would extend beyond 1900. But the details grew in volume. Nearly half a million applications were received from individuals who wished to share in the distribution of tribal lands. Out of this number, some 87,000 have been recognized as members of the various tribes. Nearly twenty million acres of land were to be surveyed, appraised, and allotted in shares of equal value to the tribesmen in proportion to the tribal holdings in the Territory. In the small Seminole Nation 2,775 Indians have been given 320,000 acres of land; nearly 16,000 Creeks have been put in possession of three million acres of allotments; the Choctaws and Chickasaws, to the number of 33,565, have divided over eleven million acres in the southern half of the Territory; and more than 35,000 Cherokees have been adjudged rightful claimants to five million acres in the northeast corner of Indian Territory. In barest outline, this has been the work accomplished by the Commission first suggested and headed by the late Henry L. Dawes, ex-Senator from Massachusetts. The expenses of the Commission have aggregated about $1,500,000, and the amount of detail involved has been enormous. Questions like that of settling the status of freedmen (the descendants of slaves held by Indians before the civil war), and the determination of the rights of the Delawares in the Cherokee lands, have delayed the Commission's work. Though formally disbanded on July 1, a portion of the allotting force, under Tams Bixby, ex-chairman of the Commission, will carry the unfinished business to completion.

The Curtis Act of 1898, the law under which the "Dawes Commission" has been working, provides that most of the tribal governments in the Territory shall expire next year. Unless Congress takes prompt and decisive steps either in joining Indian Territory to Oklahoma as a State or in erecting a temporary Territorial Government over all the tribal lands, we shall witness the curious anomaly of a country without any organized government. Nearly 90,000 Indians have, very properly, been given what belonged to them; nearly 500,000 whites are demanding the right to levy taxes to build schoolhouses, bridges, and roads, and to do business unhampered by tribal laws. Secretary Hitchcock, by standing firmly for the enforcement of tribal laws, so long as as they are laws, is doing more than anybody else to call attention to an intolerable state of affairs. Naturally, the land-grabbing whites who have followed the allotting work of the "Dawes Commission" and fattened on leases from the allottees, are raising the Statehood cry loudly. The Secretary of the Interior has been a thorn in their side for a long time because of his insistence that leasehold contracts shall be fair to the Indians, and that contracts for the sale of allotted land shall be approved by the Interior Department. The "Dawes Commission" has practically finished its work. The Indians have been got ready to meet Statehood. It is now for Congress to deal with a half-million disfranchised whites who have brought Indian Territory up to the level of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas, industrially.

For the fiscal year ending June 30 the Secretary of the Treasury estimated, in his report of last December, an $18,000,000 excess of expenditure over revenue. The deficit, as now pretty closely ascertained, will run at least seven millions beyond that sum. It is characteristic of the Government's present tendencies that this official under-estimate of the shortage did not result, like some of the Treasury's erroneous forecasts of a dozen years ago, from too optimistic hopes of revenue. On the contrary, the public income has more than equalled the Secretary's predictions. It is the steady rise in expenditure—exceeding not only the figures of last year, but the Treasury's expectations of six months ago—which has done the mischief. Examination of the Department's daily statements shows that, while army expenditure has risen some $7,000,000 over the fiscal year 1904, and outlay on the navy $15,000,000, the cost of the Government's civil establishment has also increased $15,000,000. Moreover, this last-mentioned branch of expenditure has turned out $9,000,000 larger than Secretary Shaw's own estimate of last December. He then, with half of the fiscal year already past, assigned $138,000,000 for that part of the public service. Its cost will exceed $147,000,000. Last year, after deducting the Panama payment, the cost of the civil establishment was $132,000,000; in 1903 it was $125,000,000; in 1902, $113,000,000. An increase of 30 per cent. in three years in a branch of public expenditure where waste and extravagance are proverbially apt to gain control, should serve to set people thinking. Serious reflection would certainly be stimulated if the suggested tax on bank checks or on coffee were proposed to make good the deficit.

The platform adopted by the Democratic State Convention of Ohio reads as if it might have been framed by a committee made up of Gov. Folk, Senator-elect La Follette, and Mr. Bryan. In reality, it is the product of a platform committee dominated by Tom L. Johnson and M. E. Ingalls, the Cincinnati railroad man. On national questions the document is brief. It applauds the Administration's attempt to purchase Panama Canal supplies in the open markets of the world, and demands that Congress shall enact specific anti-rebate legislation, and increase the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission. On State issues the platform dwells at greater length. Mayor Johnson's plank pledging the party to the enactment of a law reducing railway fares in the State to two cents a mile was rejected, but a provision was inserted declaring for the taxation of railway property at its salable value. The appeal for home rule for cities and towns is timely. Tom Johnson's influence appears in the adoption of a plank putting the question of municipal ownership of public utilities before the voters of each municipality. In view of the well-known character of the Cox-Foraker-Dick rule in Ohio, it is to be hoped that Mr. John M. Pattison of Cincinnati, the candidate for Governor in opposition to Gov. Herrick, who was renominated by the Republicans recently, may have an opportunity to make effective that section of the platform which pledges the Democratic party, if successful, "to use its utmost endeavor to eliminate the 'graft' and political corruption that have been nourished and fastened upon the State by the Republican party in the last few years." Such a result would be infinitely encouraging to other boss-bound States in addition to Ohio.

The only scientific studies of the negro question being made to-day are those carried on by Atlanta University. This year it held its tenth annual conference, which devoted part of its time to reviewing the progress of the negro in the last ten years. Its conclusions, signed by Prof. W. E. B. Du Bois, L. M. Hershaw of the United States Land Office, and Walter F. Willcox of Cornell

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University, special agent of the Twelfth Census, primarily bring out the fact that there is growing up a demand for genuine knowledge in place of prejudice or mere opinion about the negro question. A striking belief expressed by the committee is that there has been a progressive differentiation of the negroes into social and economic classes, which makes it unjust to characterize the race as if it were a unit. That the mortality of the negro is decreasing, particularly among children, is another conclusion, while the great increase in the number of good homes and in the organized efforts for social betterment is obvious to even the casual student of the subject. Up to 1895 there was an alarming growth of negro crime; since that time there has set in a steady decrease, which is the proper corollary to the greater effectiveness of the negro church and the steady prosperity of the colored business man. The severe economic crisis among negro artisans is also touched upon. Finally, the investigators believe that future studies should go into the many unsettled questions relating to the vitality of the negro, his economic efficiency, his moral habits, and his capacity for government, and into the means of improving all these. They also ask that an endowment for the work of this conference be secured.

Mr. Rockefeller's gift of ten millions to the higher education is remarkable from many points of view. It is, of course, the largest donation ever made for general purposes, and it is admirable in that there are practically no restrictions of any kind. The only limitation is a wise one: that no sectarian colleges teaching in a sectarian way shall benefit by the fund. Excellent, too, is the fact that the gift applies to the entire United States, and not to any section. Its income, which will be perhaps $450,000, will not, of course, revolutionize our hundreds of colleges nor lift them all, even in twenty-five years' time, out of their pressing financial difficulties. Compared to their wants, this will be only a small sum annually. But the example should lead to other similar donations for general needs, either for buildings or for running expenses or for endowment purposes; and Mr. Rockefeller himself states that there is more of his money to come. Perhaps most laudable of all is the decision to give to the General Education Board, an organization which has already demonstrated its value in the Southern educational field, and should from now on exercise a very great influence on the development of the higher education in America. The small sensation excited by so princely (as well as wise) a gift affords striking evidence of the change in the scale of values wrought by the fall in interest.

The action, on June 28, of the three voting trustees of the Equitable Life in filling nine of the vacancies caused by resignation of former directors, was in line with their pledge to allow policyholders a voice, and to choose a portion of the new management from their ranks. The nine new names were not submitted according to a vote of the policyholders as a body, but in deference to the wishes of various policyholders' committees. Under the circumstances, this was the most practical course to follow. It would have been impossible, on this short notice, to obtain effective expression of majority preference on the part of the company's 600,000 policyholders. For such a vote to be of any value, a thorough canvass of the company's membership, and probably organization of proxy committees, would be necessary. We are not sure that expression of preference through policyholders in various sections or communities, acting through committees of their own, may not be a useful precedent. Exactly how far the various existing committees of this sort are fully representative, is doubtful; but it is possible for them to become so in the future. Assuming a voting power, direct or indirect, to be enjoyed by Equitable policyholders, their position would be akin to that of a large community on which popular suffrage is suddenly conferred. Without preliminary caucuses, without canvass of nominees, first by small groups and then by large groups of qualified voters, mere confusion would result, with the ultimate choice dictated, probably, by secret cooperation of a minority with interests of its own. This is precisely the situation of half a million policyholders suddenly asked to choose directors. It would equally be their position in case of absolute mutualization. In our purely mutual companies, indeed, the society's vote is commonly procured through requests for proxies in favor of the existing management, whose candidates never are opposed.

On the question of the elder Hyde's culpability in the matter of leases made by the Equitable to smaller companies controlled by Equitable directors, his son's reply to Superintendent Hendricks's report takes issues with that document. Mr. Hyde makes perhaps as good a case for his father as was possible, so far as regards the original contracts with these companies. The weakness of his case, however, appears at once when he argues that, whatever the pecuniary results of these leases (Mr. Hendricks proved in at least two cases an absolute loss to the Equitable), "it does not follow that, because the rentals seem low at the present time, they were unfair when made." Possibly; but Mr. Hyde ignores the fact, very damaging to the recent management, that, as the earlier leases expired, at various dates during the past twenty years, they were "regularly renewed on the same terms, or on terms even more unfavorable to the Equitable." The salient point is the opportunity which undoubtedly existed, in this direction and in the investment of Equitable money in such companies, for underhand profit at the Society's expense. It was these considerations which moved Superintendent Hendricks to conclude that "there can be no question of the wisdom of prohibiting the investment of the funds of life-insurance companies in subsidiary moneyed and business corporations controlled by life-insurance companies"; which led the Frick committee to declare that, "judging these investments either on general principles or on their specific results, their wisdom is gravely questionable," and which called forth from the Morgan committee, as long ago as 1877, the very positive declaration that "it is not believed to be wise for institutions of the character of the Equitable Society, in order to obtain a suitable rent roll . . . or for any other purpose, to be in any way connected with any other corporation, however valuable the stock of such corporation may be."

If to be slow to wrath is a virtue, Sweden deserves great credit, and, in fact, it is highly praiseworthy in the King and Cabinet to consider the secession of Norway, not in the light of natural resentment, but in that of reason and justice. One must hope that this temper may prevail over the hotheads in the Riksdag, who advocate fighting to bring Norway back into the union. Clearly, a war would not mend matters. What is needed is not a renewal of the very unsatisfactory union just broken, but a satisfactory *modus vivendi* as a stage towards a more permanent union. If Sweden should follow her sagacious monarch in taking this patient and expectant attitude, it is possible that time and considerations of common defence might bring Norway back. From this point of view it is to be hoped that Sweden will not exercise her undoubted right to protest against the diplomatic recognition of Norway. A frank acceptance of the present state of affairs might be the prelude to eventual reconciliation, whereas to establish a diplomatic blockade of Norway would only embitter already strained relations. So far, in spite of hot words at Stockholm, both contestants have given an admirable example of equanimity, and it is to be hoped that in time the unity of the Scandinavian kingdom may be restored. But this cannot profitably be brought about either by war, or by increasing vexatiously the difficulties Norway must inevitably meet as she seeks international recognition. Meanwhile, as was almost inevitable, there is a show of military preparedness.

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JOHN HAY.

The late John Hay represented to the full both theories of genius. He had capacities so marked and versatile that everything he undertook was done with a kind of divine ease, and he had a special training so laborious and protracted that his success might be accounted for as the result of sheer application. What distinguishes him from a score of illustrious predecessors in the State Department is a certain literary, or, if one will, artistic quality of temper. It requires flexibility of mind to write devil-may-care ballads after you have served in the legations of Paris, Vienna, and Madrid. It needs a ready sympathy to be forty-odd, to be an ex-diplomat and Assistant Secretary of State, and then to make the literary sensation of the season with an anonymous novel on the labor problem—'The Breadwinners.' In fact, it was because Mr. Hay so thoroughly represented what Bliss Perry has eulogized as the "amateur spirit," that he was a figure not only potent but fascinating in all of the many walks of life he entered. From his Jim Bludsoes to the epigones of the Metternich school, he was able to meet all sorts and conditions of men on their own basis; he prevailed through a superior imaginative quality, which he reinforced with an amazing variety of material information. That anecdote is characteristic which tells how a famous art critic, dining at Mr. Hay's table at Washington, displayed distress at a landscape by Constable which hung on the opposite wall. When his trouble had been noted and its cause asked, the connoisseur deprecatingly regretted that Mr. Hay had been taken in by one of the cleverer sort of forgeries. Unruffled, the host first pointed out the intrinsic marks by which the authenticity of the picture was established, and then observed, as if casually, that he had had it of Constable's heirs, and could trace it direct to the artist's studio.

But if Mr. Hay illustrated in a singular degree the virtues of the "amateur spirit"—a quality which gave a refreshingly personal tinge to all his policy as a statesman—he acquired an extraordinarily complete and professional training for the post he finally adorned. The young Brown graduate and member of the bar of Illinois who, in 1861, became Lincoln's private secretary, was immediately thrust into the minutiæ of civil and military administration under the care of a great statesman. Whatever dose of diplomacy went with the private secretaryship was confirmed by experience as secretary of legation at Paris and Madrid and chargé d'affaires at Vienna. It is needless to say that the spade work of diplomacy is done not by the ambassadors, but by their secretaries. John Hay could have had no better discipline. Furthermore, his Paris incumbency fell at the time when Louis Napoleon's "principle of nationalities" was stirring all Europe. From the vantage point of Paris the young secretary saw the seizure of the Danish Duchies and the humiliation of Austria by Prussia, the expulsion of the French from Mexico, and the assembly of Karl Marx's first congress of International Socialists at Geneva. Within his short term at Vienna fell Deák's reconstruction of the Austrian Empire on a basis of dualism, the liberation of Servia, and the abolition of the Japanese Shogunate. His brief "Castilian" days followed Marshal Prim's republic, and witnessed the reëstablishment of the Bourbons and the beginning of President Grant's negotiations for the annexation of San Domingo—the true precursor of the expansionist policy which Mr. Hay was later to direct.

Evidently here was matter to kindle the diplomatic imagination. And Mr. Hay had had enough of it, for he contented himself for several years with being the chief editorial writer for the *Tribune*, and its acting editor for a period, and with outbidding Bret Harte in narrative verse and Bayard Taylor in descriptive prose. After a digression given to journalism, literature, and the extension of valuable social relations, Mr. Hay completed his diplomatic education by two years of service as First Assistant Secretary of State to Evarts, 1879-81, thus learning the routine of the department he so brilliantly conducted twenty years later. The portentous task of writing, with Col. Nicolay, the ten volumes of the 'Life of Lincoln' must be counted as a labor of love, since Mr. Hay, through a marriage fortunate in all respects, had long been beyond the need of money-getting. His great opportunity came in the election of Mr. McKinley, who was doubly bound to Mr. Hay by personal friendship and by material benefactions.

As Ambassador to England Mr. Hay's success was personal rather than diplomatic, but as Secretary of State, since 1898, his peculiar abilities have gained world-wide recognition. It was typical of his manner of thought that the sensational episode of the siege of the Peking legation did not suggest spectacular vindication of national honor, but hastened the execution of a humane plan, previously conceived, for the rehabilitation of the troubled Empire. By patient consultation with the European Powers he succeeded in imposing the principle that China was no longer a field for spoliation, but was to be open on equal terms to the trade of the world, and was to have its opportunity for national reform and development. Mr. Hay's circular notes on the Mantchuria question were the object of some mockery, as merely academic. That tone has changed since it has been perceived that the Japanese triumph is merely one interpretation of Mr. Hay's doctrine, and Mr. Roosevelt's humane mediation between the combatants another. These facts have completely borne out Mr. Hay's prophetic vision that the Chinese question is one in morals as well as in international politics, and that the time for European aggression has passed.

It would be unworthy of Mr. Hay's own great achievements and personal candor to fail to point out that he had not only the qualities, but the defects, of the amateur spirit. His desire to illustrate his office, his quick imaginative response to distant situations, led him at times into empty undertakings, like the Rumanian circular against persecution of the Jews. His devotion to the project of the Panama Canal and to that of national expansion generally drew him into more than one equivocal transaction in the national behoof, as his admirers must acknowledge with averted faces. But his administration, taken broadly, was characterized by scholarship, dignity, and resourcefulness. In seven years he has raised the State Department from a condition of relative provincialism to a commanding position among the chancelleries of the world. Mr. Hay is most likely to be remembered for that magnanimous stand in the Far East which stemmed the tide of brutal aggression upon helpless China. His associates and our generation of brethren of the pen will remember with most affection the *littérateur* who, amid the gravest responsibilities, vindicated the practical value of the artistic imagination.

THE FRANCHISE IN MARYLAND.

The campaign now beginning in Maryland has an uncommon interest for the rest of the country, because we have there for the first time "white supremacy" as the chief, indeed, almost the sole, issue in a State outside the "solid South." Party lines on this question are likely to be often broken this fall, for many influential Democrats, among them Gov. Warfield and Attorney-General Bryan, have refused to follow the lead of the Gorman organization, and, on the other hand, many Republicans of "lily-white" leanings will undoubtedly favor the amendment. It is, in fact, the avowed object of its sponsors to induce voters to divide at the polls by races, and not by parties. Before going any further, let us see just what this amendment is. After the usual provisions regarding residence, it provides that, in order to register, a male citizen must be:

(1.) A person able to read any section of the Constitution of this State submitted to him by the officers of registration and to give a reasonable explanation of the same; or, if unable to read such section, then to understand and give explanation thereof when read to him by the registration officers; or,

(2.) A person who on the first day of January, 1869, or prior thereto, was en-

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titled to vote under the laws of this State or of any other State of the United States wherein he then resided; or,

(3.) Any male lineal descendant of such last-mentioned person who may be twenty-one (21) years of age or over in the year 1906.

The chief line of argument in support of this amendment is that, in adopting it, Maryland will merely be following the example of all the States farther south. "It thus reflects and adopts the latest and best views of the strongest men of the South," says Murray Vandiver, Democratic State Chairman. Let us, then, examine the Maryland clauses, not from our own point of view, but in the light of other Southern constitutions. Before taking up them in detail, one important distinction must be made. They are intended to be the permanent conditions of registration in Maryland. Voters may continue to come in under the second clause until the death of all those now fifty-seven years old or more, while the third remains practically in force until the first voters of next year are extinct. Now most of the constitutions directed against the negro vote have contained two different suffrage provisions—one being temporary and the other permanent. That is to say, they gave the ignorant or propertyless white man several years in which to put his name on the voting-list, but, if he neglected that chance, he was, under the law, placed on the same footing as the negro. Thus, we find Chairman Vandiver explaining that the first clause of the Maryland amendment "is taken from the present Constitution of Virginia." So it is, in truth, but it is a part of the temporary plan, and expired with the year 1903. The educational test in force in Virginia to-day is simply the writing of name, age, residence, etc., in the presence of the registration officers. Similar is the clause of the permanent plan in Louisiana, which provides:

"He shall be able to read and write, and shall demonstrate his ability to do so when he applies for registration, by making, under oath administered by the registration officer or his deputy, written application therefor, in the English language, or his mother tongue, which application shall contain the essential facts necessary to show that he is entitled to register and vote, and shall be entirely written, dated, and signed by him, in the presence of the resigstration officer or his deputy, without assistance or suggestion from any person or any memorandum whatever, except the form of application hereinafter set forth."

"Understanding" clauses have existed in South Carolina and Alabama also, but the former expired in 1898 and the latter in 1903. Alabama now requires that the voter "can read and write any article of the Constitution of the United States in the English language." In South Carolina, under the permanent plan, he must read and write, or own $300 worth of property. In Mississippi (as in South Carolina's temporary plan) the voter must "read any section of the Constitution of the State or be able to understand the same when read to him, or give a reasonable explanation thereof." Thus, for the requirement that the voter must read and understand the Constitution, there is only one precedent, and that a plan no longer in force. The other provisions just cited impose plain and simple tests that admit practically of no dispute. Even in Mississippi, if the negro can read, he is not put to the additional test of explaining. But to require from the man who has shown his ability to read "a reasonable explanation" in addition is simply giving to the registration officers absolute power to disfranchise. "What this would mean in practice, under the 2-to-1 system, everybody knows," says the Baltimore *News*.

We now come to the exemption of voters of 1869, and the "grandfather clause." Here again in the permanent plan of registration we find features that were never adopted in any Southern State except temporarily. Alabama exempted from the other tests soldiers and sailors in any of our wars—including the Spanish war, to which she sent a negro regiment—and their lineal descendants. This exemption ceased in 1903. In Virginia a similar provision, extending only to the sons of veterans, went out of force, along with the "understanding clause," on January 1, 1904. Only Louisiana and North Carolina conferred exemption on the voters of 1867 and their sons, as does, practically, the Maryland clause. In the former State this extended only to 1898, and in the latter it will expire on December 1, 1908.

Thus, to summarize it in a sentence, the Maryland amendment contains, as permanent features of the State law, the most extreme and objectionable of the clauses which the Southern States devised as temporary conditions of registration and have since superseded by fairer tests.

Now a word as to the State for which this objectionable measure is designed. To every 100,000 whites in Maryland there are 24,681 negroes. Proportionately, Virginia and North Carolina have more than twice as many; Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Louisiana more than three times, and South Carolina and Mississippi more than six times as many. Tennessee, Texas, and Arkansas, the only Southern States which have relatively less than twice as many negroes as Maryland, have none of them adopted any of the provisions which characterize the Maryland amendment. Though we should concede, as we emphatically do not, the perfect justice and fairness of the Gulf States' Constitutions, it would still be utterly preposterous to assert that any regrettable necessity compels the adoption of the same measures in Maryland. Moreover, the foreign element, which does not secure the benefit of the grandfather clause, and is subject, like the negroes, to the caprice of the registration officers, is very much greater than in any State farther South. It is relatively half as large again as in Texas, twice as large as in Florida, and nearly twenty times as large as in South Carolina. In no State further South is it true, as in Maryland, that the foreign-born whites and native whites of foreign parents outnumber the negroes.

A fair test of fitness applied to all voters alike, of whatever color, any State, North or South, has a perfect right to impose. But, seriously as some of the States have departed from this principle, the Maryland proposal touches a new depth of unfairness and partisanship.

THE USELESS ELECTORAL COLLEGE.

Speaking before the New Jersey State Bar Association recently, Mr. J. Hampden Dougherty discussed at length the history and present status of the constitutional and statutory provisions relating to the election of the President. "Of the various perplexing questions which the electoral court has presented," he says, "not one is solved by the act of 1887 [the law now in force]."

"It makes no provision as to what shall happen if constitutionally ineligible electors shall be appointed by a State; it does not declare whether the provision of the Constitution requiring electors to meet on the same day throughout the United States is mandatory or directory; it creates no tribunal for the determination of other difficulties arising in connection with the electoral vote, but simply empowers the two houses, practically without debate, in certain contingencies, to exclude the vote of a State, without prescribing any regulations for the government of their conduct—thus leaving them apparently to judge in any case by *ex post facto* legislation."

Mr. Dougherty's own conclusion is in favor of the entire abolition of the electoral college and the creation by constitutional amendment of some more direct system of electing President and Vice-President. He also holds that a Constitutional amendment would be necessary to repair the often-discussed omission of any provision for the succession in the event of the death of the President-elect between the meeting of the electors and date for his inauguration.

It ought not to be difficult, certainly, in the light of the experience of thirty elections, to draft a new article that would be at once simple and comprehensive. Several plans have been offered in the past which would supplant the electoral college without altering the relative influence of the several States. Thus, it has been proposed to let the people vote directly for Presidential candidates; the candidate carrying each State being then credited with as many votes as that State now has in the electoral college. Variants of that plan have been many. But, however strong the arguments against the electoral college may be, the necessary popular feeling to secure its abolition must be based largely

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on the defects which it actually exhibits in present operation.

An eloquent member of Congress, as Mr. Dougherty recalls, long ago declared that a State Legislature, if so disposed, could legally delegate the power of choosing Presidential electors to a bank or even a synagogue. While we have not had, and are not even remotely likely to have, any such preposterous abuse of power as that, yet there have actually been employed in recent years a good number of devices by which partisan ends can be gained in the choice of electors. That is to say, the party which happens to be in control of the Legislature, without making a single convert or adding one name to its voting strength, can, by tampering with this precious electoral machinery, increase very considerably its own chances of at least partial success. The most conspicuous attempt of this kind was Michigan's return in 1892 to the system of choosing electors by districts, a method which, though once common, had been abandoned by the last State which used it in 1836. According to the rule prevailing in all the other States, Harrison, whose electors had in the aggregate about 20,000 more votes than those for Cleveland, would have had all the 14 votes of Michigan. As it was, Cleveland carried five of the electoral districts. It is worth recalling that, although it was a Democratic Legislature which adopted this method of snatching a brand from the burning, yet, had the same rule been universally adopted, Cleveland's electoral plurality would have been reduced from 132 to 96. It was pointed out by the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent during the last campaign that a return to the district system in the Northern States would have eliminated all possible chance of a Democratic victory, by removing the opportunity for overturning by small pluralities a few States with large electoral votes.

But it is possible to increase considerably the difficulties of the "outs" without even disturbing the popular choice of electors on a general ticket. For an extreme case, take Florida, where the Republican vote at present is certainly not large enough to be formidable. The State is entitled to five electors, and four parties made nominations last fall. Under the extraordinary ballot law which the powers have decreed, the names of these twenty electoral candidates were printed in a close column one below the other, with no line or space to separate the parties, and no name, emblem, or other indication to show by which party each candidate was nominated. The Democrat had to mark the first five; the Republican, numbers six to ten inclusive; the Populist, numbers eleven to fifteen inclusive, and so on. Naturally a very large number of voters were muddled, and, in fact, 900 Democrats out of 27,046; 1,650 Republicans out of 8,314; 689 Populists out of 1,605; and 1,086 Socialists out of 2,337, failed to mark all the electors of their parties. This amounts, roughly, to 3½ per cent. of the Democratic vote, 20 per cent. of the Republican, 43 of the Populist, and 47 of the Socialist. In other words, if the Republicans should somehow succeed in carrying the State in 1908, the election law remaining what it is, the Democrats would still retain some of the electors unless the plurality of the Republicans amounted to a clear fifth of their vote.

It is customary to give the vote for "highest elector" in each State as the "popular vote" of a Presidential candidate. As a matter of fact, the real margin of victory is the difference between the lowest elector of the winning party and the highest of the losing. In Maryland, where a square for voting all electors at once on the ballot is similar to and immediately above that for the first elector, 2,504 Republicans made the mistake of voting for elector number one only, and that margin was wide enough for seven Democratic electors to come in, although it is indisputable that more Marylanders tried to vote for Mr. Roosevelt than for Mr. Parker. Massachusetts, to take an opposite instance, makes the voter take considerable trouble to "scratch" an individual elector; and while some do manifest their personal preferences this way, the difference between highest and lowest elector last fall was only 68 on the Republican ticket and 96 on the Democratic; .03 per cent. in one case, .06 in the other. Contrast these with the Florida figures, and see how the electoral system lends itself to trickery.

Certainly the movement to reform that feature of the Constitution which has departed farthest from the original intention of its framers, and has brought up more or less important disputed questions at more than half of our elections, does not have to rely on theoretical arguments for support.

THE COST OF LIFE-INSURANCE BUSINESS.

To one unacquainted with the mathematics of insurance, it seems surprising that, in consideration of an annual premium to be continued through life, a company can engage to repay on death or sooner an amount equal to the total premiums for a period of fifty years, or even one hundred years. But the possibility is a very simple result of computations based on the probabilities of human life, and on the increase of invested funds on which the interest is allowed to accumulate by constantly compounding itself. Given a table of mortality and a rate of interest, and the problem of determining what annual premium should be paid in order to secure a given payment at death (or after a term of years) is one which has long been worked out with great exactness. Of course, the result cannot be wholly free from the uncertainties which pertain to all human affairs. The actual mortality may be greater or less than that predicted from the tables, and the rate of interest may be greater or less than that taken as the basis of the premium. To guard against every contingency of this kind, a "loading" of about one-third is added to the mathematical premium. One conclusion is obvious at the outset. Supposing the company to be a mutual one, as is now almost universally the case, this loading properly belongs to the policyholder who pays it, and, if favorable experience has proved it unnecessary, it should be returned to him in the form either of a cash return or an addition to his policy. This repayment of a bonus has been so common and is so well understood that we need not dwell upon it.

Life insurance on a large scale may be said to date, in our own country, from the organization of the Mutual Life of New York more than sixty years ago. An experience of a few years with this company, and with those which were soon after organized, brought out a very gratifying result. Instead of the loading of the premium being necessary, it was found that the rate of mortality was markedly less than that predicted from the tables, while the rate of interest which the company, by good management, was able to gain, considerably exceeded the very low minimum on which the premiums were computed. Two large sources of profit thus poured their accumulations into the treasury of the company in addition to the loading on the premiums. The result was that, for a number of years, this and other companies were able, with perfect safety, to return profits to their policyholders on a scale which was agreeably surprising. The experience greatly facilitated the efforts of the companies to extend their business as widely as possible. Not only for this purpose, but for the business itself, an agency in every important town was considered necessary. One reason for this course was that a personal examination of the case of each applicant for insurance might be advisable to guard against the danger of fraud. Another reason, less legitimate than this, was the very general opinion that no one was going to insure his life unless solicited by an agent. We believe that no opinion has been more universally prevalent among life-insurance men than this; and yet, granting its truth to a limited extent under actual conditions, one cannot but think that some way of avoiding the expense of a universal system of solicitation could have been devised.

Whatever the necessity, the fact was that the expenses of management far ex-

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ceeded the limit which economy would dictate in the case of a purely fiscal institution. During the few years before the civil war, the expenses of the largest and best-managed companies ranged from 7 to 9 per cent. of the total receipts, and those of the smaller and newly established companies were even higher. Such a statement of expenses was presented by the companies from a rather apologetic standpoint, the idea suggested being that, as the business enlarged, and solicitations by agents became less necessary, the expenses would naturally be reduced. In estimating the necessity for the expense, we must recall the fact that a life-insurance company is a purely financial institution, of which the main business is to receive and invest money and disburse the proceeds. In this respect it is like a bank or a trust company. How extravagant the expenses are, from an abstract and ethical point of view, will be seen by estimating the economy of management of a bank in which even an important fraction of one per cent. of the deposits is required to defray its expenses. It was doubtless with a view to gradually lessening expenses that the Mutual, during a number of years, announced that the number of its policyholders would be limited to 100,000 insured lives.

But the actual history of the expense of management of all the companies has been the opposite of these anticipations. Instead of diminishing as the business was enlarged and extended, it has been continually growing. To state the situation from the most charitable point of view, the management of the companies, desiring the greatest possible enlargement of their business, found that they could do this more effectively by expending a portion of their surplus in organized efforts through agents than by returning it to the policyholders. When the number of lives insured in the "Mutual" approached the limit, the latter was removed, and no restrictions placed upon the growth of the company. The great "life-insurance interest" claimed recognition, both from the public and from the State governments, with the power that money always wields. Had this "interest" been solely that of the million or more of men who held life-insurance policies, it would have been legitimate; but practically the interest is that of life-insurance agents and managers, whose function it is to promote life insurance among the people.

Competition between the great companies to show the public the greatest possible accumulation of assets constantly grew. At as early a date as 1870 the area of the United States was found too small to satisfy ambition, and several of the larger companies began to establish agencies in Europe, and we know not what other continents. The great increase in the ratio of expenses was probably due as much to this extension as to any other cause. An American company is naturally at a disadvantage in seeking for foreign support. Now that the rate of interest here is as low as in any other country, an American company cannot offer a foreigner any sound inducement to prefer it to a home company, and it is perfectly natural that one should intrust the interests of his family to the latter rather than to a foreign custodian. It is an example of the small amount of critical attention given to the subject by the public and its supervising authorities that the companies are not called upon for a separate statement of the expenses of managing their foreign agencies. If this were the case, it might explain the growth of the expenses since the beginning of the extension. The expenses of managing several of the largest competing companies have ranged from 15 to 20 per cent. of their entire annual receipts for several years past, or double the percentage forty or fifty years ago. We believe that only a few unambitious and conservative companies have kept their expenses down to even 10 per cent.

Another fact that has been brought to light by the Equitable controversy, and of which the public has probably never been conscious, is the seeming absence of any legal check upon the expenditures of the companies. There is, indeed, a law providing that a certain reserve must be held, sufficient to insure the fulfilment of the obligations to policyholders; but this amounts only to providing that the officers of no company shall squander more than 40 per cent. of the premiums they receive. The public has relied upon this restriction as a sufficient safeguard, quite unaware that, from the beginning of our life companies until the present time, 60 per cent. of the premiums received, expenses apart, safely invested at the ordinary rates of interest, would have sufficed to pay all claims of the policyholders and also to keep the reserve well above its legal limit. Apart from this restriction, which is wholesome so far as it goes, the law recognizes no distinction between a life-insurance company and other associations of men at liberty to manage their business in their own way. In theory the policyholders have the entire power of enforcing economy in their own hands; but in practice they are powerless. In theory they hold an annual meeting; practically, we do not recall any published account of the proceedings of such a meeting or of the conclusions reached at it. Still nearer the base of the entire difficulty is the great fact that the masses of men who can be induced by agents to insure their lives, do not understand with sufficient clearness that the expenses of managing any company in which they insure will really come out of their pockets. No man should insure his life until he has made a personal examination of the insurance reports and learned what fraction of his premium is to be invested for his benefit. It should be to the profit and not to the disadvantage of a company that it reduces the expenses of its agencies to the necessary minimum. But this will not come about until the public take more interest in the subject than it now does. The case now so prominent in the public sight should bring this about. We sincerely hope that individuals and associations who take an unselfish interest in the management of public affairs will not allow the occasion to pass without enforcing a new departure in the whole system.

AIDS TO EDUCATION IN MODERN GREECE.

The fruitful work accomplished some eighty years ago by Americans active in the first organization of public instruction in Greece, invests with special interest for us the annually growing activities of the Society for the Dissemination of Useful Books in that country. During the recent Archæological Congress at Athens were given, in the rooms of this Society, several popular lectures which attracted much attention, notably that by M. Maspero on education in ancient Egypt. Recently, also, the Society has begun a new series of books for children, including a translation of Hans Andersen's tales. Founded by means of individual contributions and on the initiative of M. Demetrius Bikelas, its president, the first work undertaken by the Society, as far back as 1899, was the monthly issue of booklets—primers of astronomy, botany, physiology; single chapters that allowed of being taken separately out of standard books, such as the account of Tierra del Fuego in Darwin's 'Journal of a Voyage,' geographical and historical sketches of Italy, Sweden, and the like; little handbooks for the cultivation of bees, for the preservation of health, and so on. These monthly books have now reached the figure of about seventy. Their price, which does not cover their cost, is so low that they have been eagerly bought by the poorest people, not only in Greece, but in all Greek-speaking regions—Crete, Cyprus, Macedonia, and various parts of Asia Minor and elsewhere within the Turkish domain. The humors of Turkish censorship have often intervened more or less whimsically, as recently, when the primer of agriculture was seized because, in the account given of the queen bee, there was a passage dangerous to the safety of Abdul Hamid, inasmuch as regicide was its theme. In spite of all such difficulties and discouragements upwards of 600,000 booklets have so far been distributed. The modern Greek adopted in these publications is not fashioned upon any preconceived theory

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except that it should be "understanded of the people," and that it is so "understanded" is proved not only by this enormous circulation, but also by the fact that the booklets have been in great demand for use among convalescents in hospitals. This side of the Society's usefulness, indeed, has enlisted on its behalf the interest of its royal patroness, the Crown Princess Sophia, who has an especial care for the management of hospitals in Greece.

The Society has not, however, confined its usefulness to issuing these publications. The Ministry of Public Education in Greece entrusted it, upon representations made by its president and council, with the organization of small libraries in connection with primary schools in Greece. The royal decree of authorization is dated November 30, 1901, and very encouraging progress has already been made in the formation of these libraries, intended for the use not only of teachers and pupils in the schools, but also for that of the people of each neighborhood. The Ministry of Public Education further called upon the Society to prepare and submit a report on the teaching materials and school appurtenances best adapted to be used in Greek schools. The result has been a carefully considered list of articles procurable through the Society from various European makers. As for diagrams necessary in teaching the elements of geography, anatomy, antiquities and the like, these could not be had with the indispensable Greek explanatory text unless a special arrangement, involving the expense of printing, was entered into. One of the recent successes of the Society has been the contribution by three members of a fund for this specific purpose. Accordingly, useful diagrams for teaching purposes are in process of preparation and will soon be available for use in the schools of Greece and the Levant. This is one more example of the generosity upon which the Society for the Dissemination of Useful Books has had constantly to depend in order to make good the yearly deficits caused by the intentionally low price of its publications. The annual subscriptions of about 170 members, and the payments made by 80 life members, constitute its sole regular income over and above what is paid for its books. Not only members, but also the Government, have helped it from time to time with donations.

These new facilities thus afforded for supplying Greek schools with diagrams and for facilitating the acquisition of school supplies of all kinds, are the culmination of a line of action instituted by the Society in 1903. At that time two other Athenian societies were induced to coöperate with its president and council in calling together at Athens a Hellenic Congress of Education. In connection with this congress was held an educational exhibition. The delegates, representing all Greek-speaking islands and countries of the Levant, numbered 996, and, when assembled, voted, on the motion of Mr. George Drosinis, Secretary to the Society for the Dissemination of Useful Books, the formation of an Educational League, whose statutes were sanctioned by royal decree under date of July 19, 1904. Many foreign publishers and societies sent exhibits to the educational exhibition, and not a few of the exhibitors gave what they sent to the Educational Museum which grew out of the exhibition. Additional rooms to accommodate it were built onto the house occupied by M. Bikelas's Society, and the Museum is now so incorporated that, in case of the lapse of its present management, articles contained in it cannot lawfully be sold, but must be handed over to the University of Athens. The beginnings of this Museum date back to 1903, when a member of the Society contributed enough to form the nucleus of what is now an exceptionally interesting and instructive collection. Its present completeness was attained only in January of the present year.

CHURCH AND STATE IN MEXICO.

MEXICO, June, 1905.

Just now, when France is passing through the agitation incident to the religious associations law and kindred measures, amounting in part to a proscription of the Roman Catholic Church as it has hitherto been constituted in that country, a résumé of the results of Governmental proscription of the Church in Mexico on a scale and in a manner comparable only to the anti-clerical measures of the French Revolution, may prove of interest. In Mexico, though the laws of "the Reform" remain upon the books, there has been a steady growth toward real religious toleration in the last quarter-century; and, with occasional incidents which reveal the existence still of the spirit of the old régime, the problem is gradually working itself out.

The contest for the independence of Mexico in the second decade of the nineteenth century was in part an anti-clerical movement, just as, in all the possessions of Spain and in Spain itself, the nineteenth century ushered in a propaganda against Church domination in government. The fact that the "cry of independence," which is annually celebrated by Mexico as its chief national holiday, was uttered before a small band of his parishioners by a priest, Hidalgo, at nearly the hour of midnight on September 10, 1810, though on the surface contradicting the foregoing statement, really confirms it. There were associated with the movement for independence certain of the native priests of Mexico, in part of Spanish blood, who desired to shake off the yoke of foreign clerical domination (which was in large part the rule by Spanish friars, who obtained the chief ecclesiastical preferments, including bishoprics), and who found their best opportunity in a movement for political independence.

The independence of Mexico was achieved only to result in the proclamation of an empire, that of Iturbide. During the thirty-five years which followed, the disastrous dominance of Santa Ana stands out foremost, and the whole period is characterized mainly by the clash of personal ambitions. Nevertheless, underneath may be traced the contest between clericalism and liberalism, which is but another way of saying reaction and reform, if both are understood in an extreme sense. The Constitutional party of 1854-1857, which was but another aspect of the liberal movement, provided (in the Constitution of 1857, still in force in Mexico with various amendments and additions) that "the law cannot authorize any contract having for its object the loss or irrevocable sacrifice of the liberty of man, whether based on labor, education, or a religious vow." Besides forbidding forced labor, this article aimed, though rather covertly, as appears, at breaking up religious associations, which were forbidden to hold real estate except for places of worship. The abolition of special tribunals and the privilege of being judged by special courts (meaning ecclesiastical, though not so stating) was another phase of this rather cautious procedure for the abolition of a State Church, while very wide discretion in this direction was conferred by the provision that the Federal authorities alone should exercise, "in matters of religious worship, the intervention prescribed by the laws."

There soon ensued the French intervention and the establishment of the so-called Empire, which, under its purely Mexican aspect, was a triumph for the reactionary and clerical party—a party which, so far as regarded the adhesion of the sons of the country, had stood first for Spanish rule, then for such foreign or quasi-foreign control as would bring about the overthrow of their liberal rivals. With the withdrawal of the French and the return of the Liberals to power, the anti-clerical movement assumed a bolder phase. Under President Lerdo de Tejada, in 1873, the Constitution was amended to provide explicitly for the separation of Church and State and their mutual independence of each other; for the establishment of civil marriage and registry; for the abolition of the religious oath in giving testimony. Finally, it provided explicitly that "the law does not recognize monastic orders, nor can it permit their establishment, whatever be their denomination or the object which they proclaim themselves to seek." The following year these amendments were greatly expanded by a law dealing with all the subjects in question, reaffirming liberty of worship and the mutual independence of State and Church, but basing upon the clause of the Constitution giving the Government power, in the interest of public order, to interfere and prescribe rules regarding religious worship, some very rigid restrictions upon the Church and its ministers. Religious instruction in the public schools was forbidden, though instruction in morals was enjoined; religious holidays were abolished from the civil calendar, and the participation in them of civil officials or troops forbidden; all religious exercises were confined strictly to the interior of the churches, thus doing away with the gorgeous processions of the former friar régime, and religious exercises even within the church were made the subject of

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police inspection and supervision where necessary. The officers of religion, further, were forbidden to wear any habit or distinctive garb outside of the churches; the ringing of the bells was subjected to police supervision and regulation; ministers who had attended dying persons could not receive inheritances from them, and, in general, bequests to religious personages were restricted. The confiscation of the church edifices throughout the country, provided by a law of 1859, which was too short-lived to have much effect, was reënacted, placing title to all such edifices in the Government, which, however, continued to permit them to be employed for worship, as before. Throughout the republic, one will find, in consequence of this law, on the façade of each cathedral, and often on that of other important churches, a large and conspicuous coat-of-arms of the Mexican United States, with the traditional eagle strangling the serpent, one foot resting on the cactus. It is like the inscription on the front of French churches, "Propriété de la République."

With the entry of President Diaz to power in 1876—a rule that has lasted, with one interruption of four years, ever since—stress was soon laid upon the achievement of internal order, and, as subsidiary to this and dependent upon it, the development of the resources of the country, largely through foreign capital, necessitating the guarantee of peace and safety for foreigners. The great object, public order, once fairly achieved, the country entered upon the present era of industrial development. All factions of the populace, and, not least of all, the old propertied class, among whom in large part were numbered the old landed families which remained loyal to the Church and were opponents of reform, have shared in the benefits of this industrial development. To a large extent still the old aristocracy is identified with clericalism, and is secretly, if scarcely ever openly, hostile to the element which, coming in large part from the less aristocratic classes of the population, has seized and held the reins of power. It is through the old aristocracy, which may everywhere be still discerned, that the clergy to-day chiefly retain any hold upon the comparatively small proportion of educated Mexicans. Nevertheless, the very existence of a despotic Government, virtually forbidding the open activity of political parties in order that thus internal revolutions might be prevented, and at the same time fostering progress and development by its policy of maintaining order and protecting capitalistic enterprises, have tended to unite all Mexicans by the bonds of self-interest.

Thus, with the gradual achievement of the aims of the Diaz Administration, some of the harsh restrictions upon the Church have been felt to be not only no longer necessary, but also out of place. To-day, and for some few years past, except in places where the local administration is in charge of officials who might be called "professional Liberals," and who are radical in their anti-clericalism, priests go about the street wearing their full ministerial garb, with virtually no hindrance. The management of Church property—in so far as regards the Church edifices themselves, the residences of the clergy, seminaries, schools, etc.—is not interfered with, though doubtless any attempt once more to acquire landed property not directly devoted to public worship would promptly be stopped. The local police are commonly present at large gatherings in the churches on special days of religious significance; but the abuses incident to the presence of pickpockets in large crowds are sufficient reason for such precautions. The presence in Mexico of members of monastic orders, male and female, is a plain indication of the gradual disappearance of much of the old rancor in these matters. There are no large monastic communities, to be sure, and theoretically community life is not permitted. Nevertheless, here and there, notably in the capital itself, there are friars and nuns, who sometimes even appear on the streets in habit. Some of the friars are to be found in the pulpit, garbed as ordinary priests. In the main, the members of religious orders scattered about the country are devoting themselves to teaching in the Church schools. The rules followed in one seminary for aspirants to the priesthood, which has come under the eye of the writer, are quite notably Jesuitical. In the past few years, some of the brothers and sisters of orders expelled from France have established themselves in Mexico, and either opened schools or engaged their services in connection with Church schools already in existence. There does not appear to be any tendency upon the part of the Government to interfere with these religious, so long as they make no ostentation of their connection with an order nor attempt to establish community life in a way to attract public attention. Just how far this tolerance would go is not a thing that can just now be defined; but the best liberal minds connected with the Administration of to-day seem to think that no danger is threatened from encroachments of this sort upon the old rule.

Many Government adherents in the country, through failure to comprehend the newer issues which have arisen in Mexican public life, still make a rallying cry of anti-clericalism, and fulminate in the press and occasionally in the forum against the traditional "enemies of the Reform." Quite a local sensation was stirred up in one of the States of Mexico a few months ago by the arrest of a priest charged with having instigated a religious procession, wherein banners with religious emblems were carried. It was a very petty incident, and probably in the States presided over by broader-minded administrators it would have been passed over without remark, or with merely a quiet admonition to the Church authorities to keep within the law forbidding religious processions in the streets. So, also, it is quite the accepted custom on the part of local officials of Government to require an unusual and special ringing of the bells of churches on certain of the more important national holidays. As indicated, the ringing of the bells on ordinary or special religious days is regulated by local police restrictions; but on Mexico's Independence Day, for instance, the Government will require all the bells in all the towers to be rung continuously and demonstratively for a full half-hour or more at sunrise and at sunset, also perhaps at noon. It happens sometimes, where the clergy feel the old rancor still, that the sextons and bell-ringers are found missing at the time for such ringing of the bells, and have carried off the belfry keys with them. In one State capital recently these offenders were given short terms in jail for their absent-mindedness. This insistence upon the ringing of the church bells for civil holidays is not quite so petty as it may at first seem. The masses below are highly impressionable, and there may well be something in the policy which proclaims to them that, in spite of their quite general subordination to the clergy in all the ordinary affairs of life, there is in the Government a power able to regulate the Church. It is akin to the policy of parading the troops publicly on national holidays.

As might be expected, the Church has still a greater hold upon the majority of the people of Mexico than has the Government or modern thought, political or social. Among the educated, the Church retains its hold chiefly upon the women, who are quite under the domination and influence of the clergy as a rule, regardless of whether their husbands and fathers are of the Reform party or of the old aristocracy. The men of this educated class, outside of a conspicuous few in whose families close loyalty to the Church has been traditional, and who take an active and prominent part in high mass on Sunday, for instance, are, with some exceptions, indifferent to the Church. Where regard for their women folk or a fear of social criticism does not restrain them, the young and middle-aged generations of educated men in Mexico are free-thinkers, if thinkers at all on matters of religion. But, among the masses, the Church is the really respected power, almost as much as it was under the old régime. Here again it keeps its hold largely through the women; for, especially among the rising middle class of artisans and factory hands, there is notable among the men a feeling of independence of the *padre*. This is not true, however, in the rural districts, on the big ranches, and in those parts of the country which have been little changed as yet by railroads, telegraph, etc. To the masses generally, Holy Week, Christmas time, the day of the Virgin of Guadalupe, and other important religious celebrations, are far greater events in the year's calendar and in the lives of the celebrants than any of the national holidays.

The influence of the more radically minded of the Governmental party in preventing a complete subsidence of the old feeling is not so great as is that of the more intemperate members of the clerical party, both lay and religious. Every now and then some injudicious priest's outbreak in the pulpit is responsible for a revival of the rancor. Still more are the lay editors of the so-called clerical press to blame for a covert, but all the more resented, baiting of the "Reform" bear, with sly sarcasm or adroit misrepresentation of facts such as may still leave them on the safe side of the laws regulating the press (laws that theoretically secure freedom of speech, but practically give the executive authority sweeping jurisdiction). The leading clerical newspaper of Mexico City has of late, in spite of denials from official sources, persisted in spreading the news that the Archbishop of Mexico City, Mons. Alarcon, was to be made by the Vatican "apostolic visitor" (whatever that may

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mean), thus absorbing the functions of the apostolic delegate to Mexico (the recent Italian apostolic delegate having departed, probably not to return), with his functions as archbishop. Now Mons. Alarcon was a liberal clergyman at the time of the political reform in Mexico, and it is one of the evidences of wisdom and a spirit of accommodation at the Vatican that he and such as he have been appointed to high ecclesiastical posts in Mexico. Some of the younger bishops of Mexico are men of quite progressive and liberal views; and it is not the less significant that they should have been appointed from one or two of the ecclesiastical centres in the country which still remain most reactionary, though appointed probably rather because of their prominent family and social connections than otherwise. It was the Archbishop of Mexico City himself who issued pastoral decrees in March designed to check some of the abuses that have been long established in Mexico in connection with the observances of Holy Week. The Mexican peasant of to-day, especially in the cities, is not the simple being he once was, and certain celebrations that once may have served their purpose in impressing him in a grossly material way with the importance of the holy days, have degenerated into little more than puppet shows. The burning or hanging in effigy of Judas on Easter Day is a custom frowned upon by the progressive members of the clergy. Holy Thursday, when the host is wont to be exposed on a platform in the centre of the churches, and the faithful are supposed to make pilgrimages to seven or more churches during the day, has become a day for the idly curious to throng the churches. Shows which once may have impressed the unsophisticated peasantry are now becoming mere theatrical spectacles. Hence, Archbishop Alarcon, the fiftieth anniversary of whose priesthood was recently celebrated, addressed all the clergy of his archdiocese as follows:

"For no reason, nor under any circumstance whatever, will the curates, the vicars, or other priests allow the appearance, in the church or in the atrium, of dancers or mimics of the enemies and executioners of Christ, especially at the hour when the divine offices or other religious exercises are celebrated, or when the faithful are practising pious acts of any sort. It is to be particularly borne in mind that the persons who appear to exhibit themselves in the ridiculous garb to which we refer are almost always poor, ignorant people, and for that very reason are to be addressed and treated with persuasive plainness of speech, and with patient zeal, to convince them of the justice of our prohibition."

Such things as this reveal the lines of approximation between the more progressive and tolerant members of the Church and Governmental parties. Hence it is that the harsh restriction of the fifties and seventies directed by the Government against the Church remain in part a dead-letter. The time for their abolition, or for complete toleration of views and practices has not yet arrived; but it would appear that the tendencies are that way.

TAINE'S CORRESPONDENCE, 1870-1871.—I.

PARIS, June 15, 1905.

The third volume of 'H. Taine, sa Vie et sa Correspondance,' is by far the most interesting, not, perhaps, for its psychology, but as an historical document. The first part of the correspondence related chiefly to Taine's youth, his family, his early friends, his studies, his journeys, his literary labors; the third volume begins in 1870, on the eve of the war with Germany. As the editor of the correspondence says: "Taine was coming back from Germany on the 12th of July, 1870, with a preoccupied mind. Brought up in a purely civilian *milieu*, he was ignorant of everything military. He had been for four years an examiner in modern languages for admission to the School of Saint Cry, and, as such, he had had pass before him well-instructed, well-brought-up young men, representative of the good average French youth, but he did not know the chiefs." When the war broke out, with a terrible suddenness, he believed, like most Frenchmen, that our generals would be up to their task, and that the material preparations for the war were complete. He, however, did not underrate Germany, and he thoroughly knew her seriousness and tenacity.

He was living at Chatenay, near Paris, but went to the city almost every day. He was alarmed at the levity of the press, the spectacle of the boulevards, where the boys were screaming "À Berlin!"—by the growing agitation of the disorderly element of the population. After the first defeats, he writes to his mother from Chatenay (August 9, 1870); "You know the sad news; the army is ill commanded. The impression of all the people I have seen is bad; it is probable that the Prussians may come as far as Paris. Many people think that, if the reverses continue, there will be trouble in Paris, perhaps a revolution." He thought for a moment of returning to Paris, and offered himself to the military authorities for the National Guard; his eyesight was so bad that his offer was refused. He took his family to Tours, where he heard the news of the defeat at Sedan and of the capture of the Emperor. He tried on September 17th to reënter Paris, but did not succeed, and had to remain at Tours. He there offered his services to M. de Chaudordy, who acted as Under-Secretary of Foreign Affairs. He wrote two great articles for the English papers, which made no sensation at the time. (They have since been reprinted in his 'Last Essays in Criticism and History'). Their titles were "Public Opinion in Germany, and the Conditions of Peace," and "The Intervention of Neutrals."

When Tours was threatened by the enemy, Taine, having with him some ladies of his family, went to Pau. The climate there was favorable to the persons under his charge, but he was almost without news. We see him there occupied, in the midst of his preoccupations, with putting in order his 'Notes on England.' He had been in Pau fifteen years before, when he wrote his 'Voyage aux Pyrénées.' He writes to his mother: "The sun enters my room in the morning and the valley is green [November 19]; but for me the feeling of the public misfortune is so vivid that I do not really sense the beautiful; I only say to myself that, in other circumstances, I should feel great pleasure in the presence of all these beautiful things." He remained in Pau till the capitulation of Paris, which marked the end of the war, finishing his 'Notes on England.'

"I will write nothing," he says, "of Germany; and the feelings we all experience are such that I don't believe a Frenchman, for ten years, will travel in that country or write of it. It is very probable that on my return I shall write political articles in Paris, notwithstanding my repugnance and my want of preparation. Everybody must now put his hand to the wheel; but words are of so little avail against institutions and the national character. . . . It is clear to me that the Germans want to make of France an Italy like the Italy of Austria between 1815 and 1848—that is to say, a country they can invade at their pleasure and entirely under their hand. Perhaps, by so many miseries and humiliations, we shall be led to organize ourselves as they did in 1813."

His political prophecies were expressed in a letter to his mother, written from Pau on February 12:

"The Assembly is composed almost entirely of moderate men, many Orleanists, some Legitimists, a good number of Republicans of the Cavaignac stripe, some Radicals. In my opinion it will resemble the Chamber of 1848. In my opinion, if there is peace, the chances are for a moderate republic of more or less long duration, which will end without commotion in a constitutional monarchy under the Orléans family. The Reds are discredited in Paris, where it was seen how small their number is. The only danger will be the discontent of about sixty or eighty thousand men of the people, who were gratuitously fed during the siege, and who will find themselves without work and without pay. Are they going to try new *journées de juin?*"

Only the second part of these prophecies was verified; the Chamber was not exactly what Taine thought, and the development which he anticipated did not take place. He was a better prophet when he feared new *journées de juin*. He wrote from Pau on March 6: "I foresee civil war before a year has elapsed." The Commune began before a month had passed. He was writing at the time an article on political suffrage, which he would have in two degrees. "Few nations," he said, "are so remarkable as ours for political incapacity. Those who call themselves Republicans, progressive, are almost all madmen. There are no natural chiefs; the masses oscillate under the totally external influence of interest or of fear. What I am trying to write is an article in favor of the two-degrees suffrage, so as to give leaders to this rabble." His article was absolutely without echo, and was lost in the confusion of events.

On his return, he found his house devastated, and still occupied by Prussian soldiers. He saw Renan, who gave him some articles on the situation to read. He did not much like them. "It is abstract, not very good. He has many ideas, but his conclusion would not be acceptable. Very visibly, he is for the restoration of monarchy and a nobility so as better to imitate Prussia." Taine measured well the exaltation of spirit and the depth of social disorganization produced by the siege of Paris. The spectacle of the French arming themselves against each other during the Commune, under the eyes of the conqueror, was one which he never forgot. Those among us who were witnesses of the event can well understand his feeling of horror. During the days which followed the rising of the 18th of March, which was the beginning of the Commune, he remained in the neighborhood of Paris at his sister's country house, going regularly to Paris till the 3d of April, in order to give his lectures at the École des Beaux-Arts. After

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the 4th of April, the lectures had to be given up, and the school was closed. Taine retired once more to Tours, where he waited for the end of the insurrection.

His letters to his wife from the 19th of March to the end of May are mere notes—echoes of such news as could reach him during the period of terror which reigned in Paris. The spectacle of that city evidently gave him the idea of what he described afterwards in his account of the Terror of 1793—what he graphically called "l'anarchie spontanée," the free growth of all the savage passions of mankind.

"The *gâchis* is everywhere, it is a spontaneous dissolution. . . . The cause of the present situation and of the success of the revolt (all the men in revolt belong to the Internationale) is the extraordinary anger of all the ignorant Parisians, even of the enlightened ones, against Trochu, etc., whom they regard as traitors. . . . Many persons believe that this government of unknown men will dissolve in universal contempt. I believe in the employment of force, perhaps in the entrance of the Prussians (March 20)."

The same day, he writes: "My heart is dead within my bosom; it seems to me that I live among madmen. I have lost the feeling of indignation."

Taine wrote almost daily to his wife during the Commune. His letters are very despondent. On March 18:

"Europe might pity us on account of the magnitude of our misfortunes; now she has a right to despise us, and she uses it. No sentiment of the right, an exasperated vanity which directs itself against the chiefs instead of the enemy, Paris as mad and as vile as she has seemed heroic—I say seemed; such is the opinion of my uncle and of cool observers. It is hard to think badly of one's country; it seems to me as if it were question of a near parent, almost of a father, a mother, and, after having judged this parent incapable, I am obliged to find him grotesque, odious, low, absolutely incorrigible, and destined to the prison of criminals or the cell of madmen."

He saw clearly that the insurrection, though it never had a distinct programme, was really Socialistic: "The *bourgeois* exploits us; we must suppress him. There is no superiority, no speciality. I, the workman, am capable, if I wish, of being the head of an enterprise, a magistrate, a general; we have the guns; let us use them, and establish a republic in which workmen like ourselves shall be ministers and presidents." The insurrection was also international. The Commune had among its soldiers many Italians, English, even some Germans, all the devotees of universal anarchy. The anti-clerical character of the Commune was visible from the first. The Commune issued a decree confiscating the property of all congregations, suppressing the budget of the churches recognized by the Concordat. The Communists arrested on April 6 the Archbishop of Paris and the curate of the Madeleine. The letters of Taine, written during the early days of the insurrection, are extremely interesting; they are full of the "petits faits" which Taine always liked to note, and which were so valuable in his eyes for the study of history.

Correspondence.

A COMPARISON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to encroach upon your space for the purpose of calling attention to the manner in which Professor Bagster-Collins has constructed his recent volume, 'The Teaching of German in Secondary Schools' (The Columbia University Press, Macmillan, 1904), out of other books. His method may best be illustrated by a presentation of the relation of the book to an American book easy of access, Hempl's 'German Orthography and Phonology,' which appeared in 1897. At the right, below, is the complete text of three portions of the Bagster-Collins book. At the left are placed the corresponding portions of Hempl's book; these are not always in the order in which they stand in the book, but so arranged as to stand opposite their transcriptions:

HEMPL.

§158. The circumstances under which the German "Literary Language" (*Schriftsprache*) was formed and spread tended to make it, as its name implies, a standard written rather than spoken language. The inhabitants of the various kingdoms and provinces learned to read a common language, but each pronounced it according to his local habit. There was no one great and lasting influence for Germany such as England had in London. §163, . . . If Berlin remains the capital of the Empire, it must ultimately have an importance and influence similar to that long exerted by the speech of London and Paris.

§158. But now that universal education has enlarged the circle, etc., ... Between the members of the higher classes of society of the various towns and districts there is more intercourse, direct and indirect, and hence there is greater uniformity of speech among them.

§159. We cannot but recognize that there is more than one good usage on various points. . . . There is no standard.

§162. The fact is that every province has its provincialisms.

§163. That the speech of Hanover should have gained in England the reputation of being the best German, is not strange. . . . It is now generally recognized that Hanoverian German is in many respects provincial.

. . . one can hear at the North a German that is more bookish, orthographic, and "correct," than that spoken elsewhere.

BAGSTER-COLLINS.

P. 42. The German nation has long had a literary language, but it is a written one, not a spoken. The inhabitants of the different territorial divisions of the German Empire learn to read a common language, but each pronounces it in the manner peculiar to his own locality. In spite of the predominance of Prussia, and the importance that Berlin has assumed as its capital, its influence on pronunciation is not to be compared with that which Paris has exercised in France, and London in England.

With the spread of education and modern intercourse, there is, of course, a strong tendency, especially among the higher classes in the larger towns, towards greater uniformity; still, even to-day, there is considerable divergence between the pronunciation of Northern, Middle, and Southern Germany—a divergence which will long continue to exist.

We shall look in vain for any one place where standard German is spoken, for every province has its provincialisms. Even the pronunciation in Hanover, so long in vogue in England, is in many respects not worthy of imitation. On the whole, however, the most "correct" German, that is, the pronunciation which follows the orthography most closely, is spoken in North Germany. One reason for this is that the native dialect is so very different from the High German of the literary language. In a way, the literary language is a foreign language to the inhabitants of North Germany, it is a book language to them, and so has received more careful study than elsewhere. The influence of Prussia, too, political and literary as the largest state in the Empire, has also tended to bring the language of North Germany into good repute.

[Seven lines, five of which are quoted from Breul.]

For a long time the theatre has accordingly aimed at one pronunciation, free from dialect, for every stage in Germany, the so-called "Bühnendeutsch." The standard was at first set by men who had little or no schooling in phonetics, and consequently not always reliable knowledge.

In the North, where the native dialect differs most strikingly from the literary language, the latter, being practically a foreign tongue, has required and received most careful study in the schools." The prominence of the North in literary and political matters for the past one hundred years has tended to establish the good repute of North German.

§158. Since the establishment of political union in a large part of the German territory, it has been urged that a uniform pronunciation of the standard language ("eine dialektfreie Aussprache") should be striven after.

§160. The stage usage (*Bühnendeutsch*) is the outgrowth of certain schemes of pronunciation constructed for the use of actors by men who had little knowledge of phonetics or the history of the language.

It would be tedious to follow the treatment of the vowels and consonants in detail, but an exception may be made of *l*.

HEMPL.

§206. The result is that the German *l* has a clear, light sound, and the English *l* a dull, heavy sound. . . .

The difference is most striking after a stressed vowel, and in the final syllable *-el*, In making the German *l*. . . the lips are usually opened to the very corners of the mouth.

. . . the front [of the tongue] is convex and leaves but a very thin space between its surface and that of the roof of the mouth. . . the back of the tongue sinks. . . .

In making the English *l*. . . the back of the tongue is raised . . the whole front part of the tongue has a concave form, and thus leaves a large resonance - chamber between the tongue and the roof of the mouth.

BAGSTER-COLLINS.

P. 58. The teacher must bring out the difference between the clear, light sound of the German "l," and the dull, heavy sound of the English "l."

There is a striking difference between the sound of the English "hell" and the German "hell." In the German "l" the lips are open to the very corners of the mouth and are kept more tense.

The tongue, too, is more tense in its action, and usually the back is lowered.

In sounding the English "l," on the contrary, the back of the tongue is raised and there is at the same time a concave lowering of the front part.

It should be observed that there are three or four direct quotations from Hempl's book, mostly on points of trifling importance, and the work is spoken of with praise. But there is nowhere any expression of indebtedness to the book which might be construed as excusing the use that has been made of it.

X.

NEW YORK, June 22, 1905.

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LASALLE'S AMOUR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to a phrase in my article on Mazzini, published in the *Nation* on June 22, which is considered a misrepresentation. I referred to Ferdinand Lasalle as having been "killed in a duel over a courtesan." It would have been better to have said "over a *woman*," and to have allowed each reader to put what construction he chose on that word. Certainly, Lasalle's notorious amour was sufficiently ambiguous to justify the common belief that it was not Platonic. My purpose in referring to it, however, was to emphasize the fact that the world is too sound to date its moral regeneration from a man like Lasalle, who became entangled and was killed in so ignoble an affair.

William Roscoe Thayer.

Magnolia, Mass., July 2, 1905.

Notes.

'Russia and its Crisis,' by Prof. Paul Milyukoff, will be published in mid-August by the Chicago University Press, which in September will issue 'General Sociology,' by Prof. Albion W. Small.

'To Europe,' a handbook by way of preparation, by Miss H. A. Guerber, is among the fall announcements of Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Research Publication Company, Boston, is about to publish 'Some of the Ancestors and Descendants of Samuel Converse, jr., of Thompson Parish, Killingly, Conn., Major James Convers of Woburn, Mass., Hon. Heman Allen, M. C., of Milton and Burlington, Vt., and Capt. Jonathan Bixby, sr., of Killingly,' compiled and edited in two volumes by Charles Allen Converse. The portrait illustrations will exceed 200.

Dr. Heinrich Spies, Privatdocent in the University of Berlin, has undertaken to complete the 'Altenglische Sprachproben nebst einem Wörterbuch" begun by Eduard Mätzner, and continued by his faithful but now deceased colaborer, Hugo Bielings. The first instalment was published in Berlin as far back as 1872, and the last, closing with the word "misbeleven," in 1900. The letter M will complete the third volume, which is to appear during the present year. Spies proposes to push the dictionary by organizing a company of specialists to gather the materials from N to Z at once. He appeals to all who have done personal work in this line to share in the enterprise, and to confer with him, in Berlin (W., 57 Kurfürstenstrasse 4), in reference to plans and principles.

'The Traveller's Handbook' by Josephine Tozier (Funk & Wagnalls Co.) is one of the most intelligent of its kind. The writer treats a most depressing subject, the details of ocean-travel and of transporting one's self and one's luggage when on the other side, with a thoroughness that proves her long experience. The consecutive reading of her pages, with close scrutiny of all the small and humiliating incidents of travel in Europe, would probably deter any but the heart of iron. We therefore recommend that this excellent little book, designed as it is only for those who have not yet "crossed," should be used for reference only. Our experience of these works is that they are usually read after the event, and that one must buy one's own wisdom and buy it dear. But no one can go wrong in taking to heart the lessons of this manual—its tolerance, its attitude of acceptance of all that makes one so glad to get back from Europe. The pain fades, the joy remains, but any seasoned traveller who turns over these pages will sigh afresh, and nod assent to this unsparing revelation of the creaking machinery of transatlantic travel. Its keynote is struck on the very deck: "Chief among the opportunities within reach of those who cross the ocean is that of the possibility of learning to receive enjoyment from meagre sources, and to find pleasure in simple things." Exactly so; and one of the results of going abroad is that one learns that those "sources" and "things" are to be had very pleasantly at home. We have detected no error worth noticing in the writer's advice to travellers. On page 93, however, we observe that the phrases given for buying a ticket at an English station are "single first" and "double first." They should rather run "first single" and "first return"; nor have we ever heard a time-table called a "folder" in England (p. 97).

Mr. Hamilton Wright Mabie, furnishing a preface to his edition of 'Fairy Tales Every Child Should Know' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), strangely omits to offer any reason for his selection. What, for example, is the peculiar merit of "One Eye, Two Eyes, Three Eyes" that children ought to be familiar with it? We can discover none beyond Mr. Mabie's presumable liking for it. Are careful parents agreed that "Bluebeard," "Little Red Ridinghood," and "The Story of Ali Baba," are wholesome reading for the young? The best excuse for these is, that they have furnished counters of speech for adults which promise to have indefinite currency. Little Red Ridinghood is perhaps as substantial an historical personage as Napoleon, or at least as Tamerlane. But could we not get along without her, as she stands for nothing but simplicity and food for the wolf? The book is handsomely and openly printed, and has a colored frontispiece.

Miss Kate Stephens did an injustice to her volume of essays when she gave them the unattractive title, 'American Thumb-Prints' (Philadelphia: Lippincott). They are written in a good English style, and we have found much in them that is worth recording, especially the characteristics of the University of Hesperus, which we take to mean Kansas, and in which Miss Stephens taught. We regret a certain tone of asperity in "Up-to-date Misogyny" and the "New England Woman"—both subjects that should be touched, if at all, with a light hand. We have met with much ridicule of the New England woman, but never so thorough a dissection as this. Miss Stephens has not left her a single good point. "Her lungs are apt to be weak, waist normal, and hips undersized. . . . She is awkward in movement. . . . As she steps, she knocks her skirt with her knees. . . . More often she toes in than out"; and so on. The only woman of our acquaintance who would answer to every feature of the cruel description from which we have extracted, came, we remember, not from New England at all, but from Kansas, but of course she may have had the fatal New England strain in her blood. We are relieved to learn from Miss Stephens that this phase of the New England woman is dying out—naturally enough, as one of her crimes is that she does not marry. "She is already outnumbered in her own home by women of foreign blood, an ampler physique, . . . and a less exalted ideal of life"; these will certainly marry. But we must say that we do not see why the religion that has consoled the New England spinster should be reckoned among her faults, or why one should write of her as though she were a modern Clytemnestra. "Mayhap in this present decay," says Miss Stephens, "some Moera is punishing that awful crime of self-sufficing ecclesiasticism. Her unproductivity—no matter from what reason, whether from physical necessity or a spirit-searching flight from the wrath of God—has been her death." What an exit for the poor, plain, useful body! In her last essay, "The Plagiarizing Humors of Benjamin Franklin." Miss Stephens shows how Franklin plagiarized Swift.

In a thin volume privately and most tastefully printed by the Merrymount Press, Boston, Dr. James Read Chadwick preserves 'A Brief Sketch of the Life of James Read,' his grandfather. Mr. Read was an eminent Boston merchant and manufacturer (1789-1870), who gave his name to Readville. In 1842 his firm failed for $850,000, and settlement was made with his creditors at 86 cents on the dollar. Free to engage in business again, in the course of two years he had acquired enough to acquit his debt in full, which he did, to the admiration of the merchant princes of Boston, who presented him with a service of plate. This was worthy of being retold by his grandson—more worthy even than George Peabody's saying: "Mr. Read, I want to say that *you* laid the foundation of my future"—by timely credit when the young applicant was penniless, but in sight of a "turnover." The volume is pleasantly illustrated with portraits and facsimiles.

The Smithsonian Institution has done well to print a translation of Dr. A. B. Meyer's 'Studies of the Museums and Kindred Institutions of New York City, Albany, Buffalo, and Chicago, with Notes on Some European Institutions'; first in its annual report for 1893, and also separately. This is a kind of service which seems naturally to fall to foreigners. The "kindred institutions" embrace libraries and universities. More than a fifth of the volume is occupied with the European portion. Plans and views within and without are profusely supplied, and the compact data will prove extremely convenient for reference.

Ranke's 'History of Germany in the Era of the Reformation' still remains the great work upon its subject, and it would be a real service to scholarship to reproduce it in a complete translation, with such reference to later literature as would serve to make the reader acquainted with the vast amount of detailed study that has been given to the period since Ranke's time. Unfortunately, in 'Leopold von Ranke: History of the Reformation, translated by Sarah Austin, and edited by R. A. Johnson' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), we have only a fragmentary translation, and "editing" worthy of the publisher's office-boy.

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James J. Robinson's 'Selections from Roman Law' (American Book Co.) illustrates a commendable tendency to widen the field of college interest in classical literature. The passages selected cover a wide range of legal principles, both public and private, and the notes are devoted chiefly to an elucidation of those principles; linguistic and grammatical problems receiving attention only when the thought might otherwise be inaccessible to the advanced college student. A junior or senior course on the basis of this book, if given by an instructor of suitable legal instinct and attainments, should be of great profit to students who expect to be subsequently employed, either practically or theoretically, with problems of law or political science.

'Japanese for Daily Use,' by E. P. Prentys, assisted by K. Sasamoto (New York: William R. Jenkins), is a booklet which will fit the pocket and help the traveller. It is full of real talk, brief, to the point, and wholly free from that exaggeration of honorifics heard on the stage and overworked by novelists and Japanophiles. We have failed to find a misprint in its sixty-three pages. Numbers, money, postal rates, and helps to pronunciation have not been forgotten in this capital manual.

We receive from Lemcke & Buechner the first fascicule of ten (A-Bartholdi) of a small quarto 'Dictionnaire Encyclopédique Illustré' (Paris: Armand Colin), which is worth considering among popular French dictionaries. It is extremely compact, and is set in a type which is not fatal to reference, but would be very trying to read. The illustrations are so numerous that every page boasts one or more—commonly more; and the maps are notably numerous, *e. g.*, French West Africa, Algiers, Tunis, the railroads crossing the Alps, plans of Amsterdam, Athens, etc. There is one fine color print of mushrooms. Brief etymologies are given; dictionary definitions are followed by matter introduced by *Encycl.* Academy furnishes a good example of this.

Mr. J. Horace McFarland discusses in the *Printing Art* for June the "Importance of Education in Printing." He finds it remarkable that, while other branches of technology are studied in schools and special institutions, printing has not received due recognition as a subject for instruction. The result is, he says, that, "with a highly intelligent body of master-printers in America, there are but few who are in any sense fully trained in the art they practise. Very few of us know any history of our ancient art; a few more know, through power of absorption by contact, and not through intelligent study of a body of collected information, its underlying principles." Mr. McFarland wants to see a School of the Graphic Arts established, where the prospective printer may learn both the history and the practice of his art, and, besides, the relation of printing to other arts and sciences, the processes of engraving and lithography, as well as type-making and type-setting. Photography is an art with which a printer must be familiar; electricity is becoming more and more a factor in printing, and its laws should be clearly understood. Nor should the economics of printing be neglected. "To trace the influence of printing with movable types on the world's history will add charm and dignity to the art—and it needs both."

The railway problem in central China is shown by Col. C. C. Manifold, in the *Geographical Journal* for June, to be of the greatest importance. The journey of which he gives an account was undertaken to discover the best railway route from the upper Yang-tze provinces to the sea, and was through a region to the north of that river rarely visited by foreigners. Everywhere were to be seen the evidences of China's awakening. In the large towns he found buildings being erected or set apart for instruction in Western learning. In Szechuen each district town was sending, at the Government expense, three students to Japan to be educated in foreign learning and modern science. With this desire for knowledge commercial progress was linked. Comparatively small places had a foreign trade amounting to several million dollars, while at Chung-ching, the commercial metropolis of Szechuen, the imports for last year were valued at $12,000,000, three-quarters being Indian cotton yarn, a trade which had doubled in two years. Yet, large as are the imports, the exports are far greater, many cargo boats from the interior being broken up and sold as lumber on their arrival at Hankau. At present, communication with the outer world is wholly by the river, which sometimes for months is unnavigable even for junks above Ichang. There is also an enormous local traffic, which is carried on in the most primitive manner. In a large section of Szechuen, the richest province of the empire, with a population of from fifty to sixty millions, intelligent, industrious, and eager to purchase foreign goods, there is not a single road which will admit of a wheeled carriage or draught animals of any sort being used. The chief obstacle to a railway to the sea or a river port is the determination of the provincial authorities that all future railway construction shall be done by Chinese capital and under Chinese management. An official announcement has been made inviting subscriptions on a 4 per cent. guarantee from local magistrates, landowners, and merchants, "and no foreign assistance is to be accepted." But, as a railway under the control of provincial officials, to say nothing of the fact that the ordinary rate of interest in Szechuen is 12½ per cent., would hardly prove a desirable investment, it is obvious that the thirty million dollars asked for will never be subscribed. It should be noted, however, that there are small local railways in other parts of the empire which have been constructed wholly by the Chinese, while locomotives are being made in the Tong-shan workshops.

A landmark in "the educational conquest of the Far East" is the fifth triennial meeting of the Educational Association of China, held at Shanghai, May 17 to 20. Besides social receptions at the American consulate and St. John's College, there were six general exhibits of text-books, books for supplementary reading, industrial school work, selections from the Chinese educational exhibit at St. Louis, and of educational progress in the Philippines, besides one section on Biblical instruction. In addition to the general meetings, with three sessions daily, there were sectional gatherings on primary education, kindergartens, scientific, normal, and industrial training, methods of teaching English and Chinese, medical, sanitary, and educational literature, etc. Such men as Arthur Smith, Young J. Allen, D. Z. Sheffield, W. A. P. Martin, A. P. Parker, and a number of prominent laymen and physicians took part in reading papers, and in the discussions. A notable figure was Tasuke Harada of Kobé, a former student at Yale University, whose contributions on "Japanese Educational Influence in China" and "How to Apply the Japanese Primary School to China" were especially valuable, because it was the general opinion of the conference that the Japanese are to lead in the new education in China. During the session there was issued the Directory of Yale Men in China, 1905, numbering nearly fifty, with a biographical sketch of each. There are six Chinese students in Yale University. Of the non-resident members of the Yale Alumni Association of China, Dr. Yung Wing of the class of '54, in Hartford, heads the list. At the same time, the great illustrated work, in twenty-one volumes, on "Women in All Lands," in preparation for years, was issued from the press by the Diffusion Society, whose recent publications cover a wide range of science and history.

—To McClurg's "Library Reprints of Americana," Dr. R. G. Thwaites contributes a two-volume edition of Lahontan, under the title 'New Voyages to North America.' The text has been reprinted from the English edition of 1703, the title-pages, maps, and illustrations of which are reproduced. In addition to an introduction, notes, and index by the present editor, Mr. V. H. Paltsits of the Lenox Library also furnishes a much-needed bibliography of Lahontan's book. A somewhat archaic appearance is given to the page by the spelling and typography of 1703, but Dr. Thwaites has not gone so far as to reproduce all the misprints and minor inaccuracies of his old translator. As for Lahontan himself, the best which has been said of him comes from the pen of M. Edmond Roy, and was published in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of Canada eleven years ago. The young Gascon baron whose estate had been so far shattered by lawsuits that he had only his sword and enterprise to depend upon, stands out clearly among the picturesque figures of Frontenac's régime, and has infused much of his own personality into his book of adventures. During the first half of the eighteenth century few books of travel, whether relating to America or not, had a more striking success than this; and though the discovery that Lahontan was drawing upon his own southern imagination when he described his trip to the River Long has impaired public confidence in the rest of his narrative, the work as a whole remains a most serviceable supplement to the reports of Recollet and Jesuit. The romance about the River Long is accounted for clearly enough by the fact that Lahontan wrote his book to save himself from dire want, and did not scruple, for the sake of getting purchasers, to place himself as a discoverer in the same class with La Salle. The real significance of his story is that he approaches the life of New France without any special respect for the ecclesiastical influences that were then so strong in the colony. During the period of his residence at Quebec and among the Indians, he was a full-blooded,

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adventurous youth of no very high ideals, but endowed with great physical vigor and thoroughly in love with the rough life of the woods. At a later time, when his fortunes were broken and he found it necessary to seek refuge in literature, his discontent with Europe led him to idealize the Indian and anticipate the idyllic strain of Chateaubriand. Making every allowance for the *blague* which as a true Gascon he possessed, it remains that he held a responsible position in New France during a critical period of colonial development, and that he knew the woods well. Dr. Thwaites's editorial notes are similar in quality to those which have accompanied his Jesuit Relations and other works of Western travel. The Introduction, however, contains one or two slips. In referring to Lahontan's letter of appeal to the Marquis de Seignelay (p. xxi.) he has "three hundred crowns," where the text should run "three hundred thousand crowns," while on p. xliv. he refers to Lucian as having been a *Latin* prototype, and calls Nicolas Gueudeville "a Benedictine friar."

—Under the title of 'An Angler's Hours,' we have from the Macmillan Co. a series of papers by H. T. Sheringham, angling editor of the *Field*, all but one of which have seen previous publication in one or another of the English periodicals. Mr. Sheringham wields the pen of a cultured gentleman, displaying no obtrusive traces of the painful criticism suggested by the Horatian motto upon the dedicatory page, "Vir bonus et prudens versus reprehendet inanes," etc. And though he can go into remoter fields than Horace on due occasion, there is in him no tendency whatever to that tiresomely lavish display of erudition which we had occasion to notice, recently, in the anonymous author of 'Super Flumina.' Mr. Sheringham goes to his sport with a nature delicately sensitive to the various charms which the outdoor world offers to the properly attuned angler by the way, and so his book is for the most part over the heads of the many who go forth with no standard of success other than the catching of many fish. He wearies the reader with no exclusive fads of method, does not belong to the self-elevated aristocracy which would restrict the term angler to those who pursue a single species of fish with a single kind of lure, and displays in general a sound sense emphatically commendable. The book cannot pass without exception, however. We follow him readily enough in his semi-apologetic and yet firm assertion that it is no mortal sin to take a trout with an angleworm when for one reason or another you cannot get him with a fly, but we must regard it as an unfortunate aberration of an otherwise good man when we find him with a dark lantern at midnight covering the bottom of the stream with balls of dough, and marking the spot with a piece of paper on the bank, in order to return at daybreak with a campstool and make a catch from the school gathered together in this easy way. There has been new light on the application of ethics to sport since the old Waltonian days, and so genial a member of the brotherhood as Mr. Sheringham should be careful. A slip of the pen is ordinarily not worth the notice of the critic, but the inadvertent substitution of ounces for pounds by an angler, in speaking of the weight of fish, is so contrary to precedent and probability as to deserve rank among the curiosities of literature. Possibly it was a deep-laid plot of Mr. Sheringham to gain credit for certain other statements, as of the irate angler who waded out to a monster trout which refused to rise, and kicked it in the side for its insolent imperturbability.

—The dramatic critic, and, in fact, any sort of critic, if he expects to be read, must be cocksure. He should not qualify his verdict with saving-clauses, with "I think" or "At least it seems so to me." He should not mention that he has not read this and that play of the dramatist whom he sets out to estimate, or confess that he has been less fortunate than others in opportunities of seeing those plays on the stage. He may be sure that his reader will have his first impulse to lay down the book when he encounters such misplaced honesty. Above all is the academic critic called upon to be definite, to have all his facts in order, or at least assume them by the divination which is the privilege of the well informed. An amiable and quite unacademic vagueness is, however, the chief characteristic of Mr. E. E. Hale, jr.'s, 'Dramatists of To-day' (Henry Holt & Co.). "I remain," he says (p. 4), "on an isthmus of a middle state. Somewhere about halfway between the holy mountain and the abyss do I mount beside the puppet booth and give, as though a barker, some comment on the dramatists of our day." Mr. Hale reviews after his fashion the typical plays of seven modern dramatists, English and Continental, and he is, throughout, essentially incoherent.. "And in Wildenbruch there is doubtless," he writes, "something too (only I can never quite get at it), which brings out by contrast the qualities of Sudermann" (p. 64). "It takes time to tell these complicated things," he says of Pinero's "Letty," and he certainly has described the play so as to make even *Letty* seem complicated. "It may be that the novelist, who must work so much by description where the dramatist can work by presentation, the temptation is to confine oneself" (p. 74)—Mr. Hale must have left out something that would have made sense of this conjecture. His English style leaves much to be improved. Dilettantism is sometimes excusable in a critic, but in a serious volume of essays there is no excuse for such a sentence as "they compromised, as a rule, by having their heroes chumps" (p. 25), or for the inelegance of "You will best get at them when they are not dead set on some special object" (p. 106). "I will confess," writes Mr. Hale of a scene in "Magda," "that I hardly know whether all this is precisely what one would call dramatic." We have chosen to dwell on the manner rather than the substance of Mr. Hale's book because his essays are precisely what one would *not* call dramatic criticism.

—Having been sorely tried of late by abridged and adapted memoirs of the French Revolution, we find it a relief to meet with a new work on this period which deserves the printing. In his 'Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the French Revolution' (Frowde), Mr. L. G. Wickham Legg of New College, Oxford, has brought together two volumes of extracts that are well worth the editorial care he has lavished upon them. In France the speeches of the Revolutionary orators are to a certain extent known through the exhaustive 'Histoire Parlementaire' published by MM. Buchez and Roux, and more widely through the selections made by M. Aulard. The English world is enabled to become familiar with this same body of literature in its essentials through the good offices of Prof. H. M. Stephens. The memoirs and correspondence of the political leaders are more accessible still. But what we have lacked hitherto has been a well-chosen body of material which should disclose the feelings and ideas of the masses at successive stages of the movement. The natural channel of such opinion and sentiment was the daily press, and altogether nearly 500 newspapers were published in Paris during the times, less than two years and a half, when the Constituent Assembly was in session. Mr. Legg, searching for the views of the average man, finds them chiefly in such representative sheets as Mirabeau's *Les États Généraux*, Mallet du Pan's *Mercure de France*, Camille Desmoulins's *Révolutions de France et de Brabant*, Brissot's *Patriote Français*, and Marat's *Ami du Peuple*. Although these and the other most representative newspapers were published by party chieftains or lieutenants, they kept in close touch with the popular mood of the moment, each for its own section of the community, and from them can be made out a side of the Revolution which does not find adequate expression in parliamentary debate.

—Mr. Legg, taking up large subjects like the storming of the Bastille, the March to Versailles, the Flight to Varennes, the "Massacre" of the Champ de Mars, etc., gives the newspaper version of the facts with such comment as is represented by leading articles that consider the incidents from typical points of view. We are particularly glad to see that he has made copious use of the *Mercure de France*, a journal which expressed temperate, firm, and enlightened opinions under circumstances of the most trying kind. In selecting his subjects Mr. Legg has thought it best to economize space by denying notice to colonial and foreign affairs. But, while concentrating his attention upon the domestic affairs of France, he does not make Paris overshadow the rest of the country, even though the newspapers from which he draws so largely saw things in the main from a Parisian standpoint. Various official utterances, like the speeches of Louis XVI. and the Bull of Pius VI. on the civil oath of the clergy, are included, as well as important laws like those relating to local government, the judicial organization, and the organization of the ministry. The Constitution of 1791 is also reprinted. We hope that Mr. Legg will in future volumes apply his method of selection to the periods of the Legislative Assembly and the National Convention.

A NEW HISTORY OF ROME IN HER MIDDLE PERIOD.

A History of Rome during the Later Republic and Earlier Principate. By A. H. J. Greenidge, M.A., D.Litt., Tutor and late Fellow of Hertford College, and Lecturer in Ancient History at Brasenose College, Oxford. Volume I. From the Tribunate of Tiberius Gracchus to the

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Second Consulship of Marius, B. C., 133-104. With two maps. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

It is quite time that there should appear in our language some new treatment of that history which forms the centre of the history of the ancient world. No British or American scholar has entered the field with any book planned on a large scale since Theodor Mommsen's great work—a work as brilliant as it is learned, but too concise to deal fully with many of the topics it touched—was translated into English. Since that time much has been done to extend our knowledge of Roman things, by no one more than by Mommsen himself; and our way of regarding Rome and her dominion has itself been modified. Accordingly such a book as Dr. Greenidge's deserves a friendly reception when it comes from one who has already shown, by several smaller works, that he possesses both extensive learning and a mastery of critical methods. His treatises on *Infamia* and the Legal Procedure of Cicero's Time relate to highly technical subjects, and could attract but few readers. They show, however, both that he understands Roman law, an indispensable prerequisite to a comprehension of Roman history, and that he is a diligent investigator.

The present volume sustains his reputation for accuracy and penetration, while proving him to possess gifts of a different order. It discloses a large grasp of facts and a weighty style. Dr. Greenidge's writing is always forcible and often pointed, sometimes a little too colloquial for the dignity of the subject, sometimes a little obscure from the concentration of thought, but never tedious or diffuse. His narrative occasionally rises into a high dramatic impressiveness. The story of the career of Tiberius Gracchus, for instance, is given with a vigor which holds the reader's attention from first to last, nor is the shorter description of the Servile war in Sicily inferior in its picturesqueness and in the skill with which the salient incidents are presented. It has become the fashion to contrast the old-fashioned "literary" way of writing history with the new or "scientific" way, and some have gone so far as to say that the scientific method excludes charm, and justifies—perhaps, indeed, prescribes—an austere dulness. Dr. Greenidge belongs to the scientific school in respect of his care and diligence in investigation, and his abstinence from mere embellishments. But his pages have that best sort of interest which belongs to a judicious selection of facts, and to a forcible presentment of them which brings them vividly before the reader's mind, and sets him reflecting upon causes and consequences. His own mind has been moved by the story he tells, and he communicates to us a sense of its tragic meaning.

The chief defect we have to note in the book is the abruptness with which we are set down into the middle of the history of the second century B. C., without any sketch of the preceding, even of the immediately preceding, events, or any outline of the constitution of the Roman Republic. The author, seeing that the course he has taken may be criticised, avows and defends it. He thinks it best simply to assume the earlier history and the form which the constitution had taken to be already known to the reader, and proceeds forthwith to discuss the highly technical questions which arose during the struggle of the two Gracchi against the Senatorial party, upon that assumption, observing that the reader may find in familiar manuals all he needs to know. This is, however, an assumption that cannot safely be made even in the case of scholars and historians, unless they happen to be Roman specialists, nor does one wish to be always referring to some other volume. When another edition is called for, this first volume ought to begin with an introduction sufficient to place the reader abreast of the situation which Rome held in the world, in her relations to the Italian cities, and in her domestic institutions, at the moment when the narrative opens.

That moment is well chosen to indicate the precise department or period of Roman history which Dr. Greenidge means to deal with. It is the Revolutionary Period, which turned Rome from a republic half-oligarchic, half-democratic, into an absolute monarchy. At the beginning of this period nothing seemed more improbable than that the Romans, who hated even the name of a king, should ever submit to the rule of one man. At the end of the period the rule of one man had become so inevitable, so incontestably necessary to the governance of a conquered world, that nobody dreamt of substituting any other system, or even of limiting in any way the power of the ruler. This revolution, perhaps the most momentous in the annals of mankind, was in progress for a century and a half. Dr. Greenidge seems to put the end of it at the accession of Vespasian. Others might put it rather earlier, say at the accession of Tiberius. But about the beginning there can be little doubt. Historians like Velleius Paterculus, of early imperial days, had noted it. That is marked by the agitation raised first by Tiberius Gracchus, and then by his brother Gaius Gracchus. The old constitution then received shocks from which it never recovered; and the intervals of comparative tranquillity that followed served only to usher in convulsions more and more violent. When these took the form of civil wars, the end came.

Mommsen has given, in his vehement and condensed way, a powerful picture of this long struggle, and an analysis of the causes which produced it. Subsequent writers have in the main followed him, though of late years there have been protests against his scornful treatment of Cicero and of Cato the younger, as well as dissents from his glorification of Julius Cæsar. Dr. Greenidge in the main adopts Mommsen's view of the condition of Rome in the second century B. C., and of the Gracchan movement, but he is not a blind disciple or admirer of the great German, and he adds a good many details which bring out more fully the features of the time and the character of the actors. Recognizing the immense part which economic conditions played in causing the movement led by the Gracchi, he very properly begins by describing the social and economic changes which the growth of wealth and the extension of Roman dominion had produced in the citizens and in the sort of life they led. Among these the agricultural situation figures largely, for there had been a great reduction in the number of peasant proprietors, along with the growth of large properties, especially of large ranches or pasture estates, as against the tillage which had been the mainstay of the earlier Romans. While the type of the ordinary citizen was changing by extinction of the old, hard-working, god-fearing, thrifty, solid yeomen, the number of city voters had been swollen by the admission to citizenship of large numbers of freedmen. That vast change in the blood of the Western Mediterranean countries which was produced by the immense influx of slaves from the East and North, and which had already told upon Greece, was now telling on Italy and even more upon Sicily. One of the most terrible events in the second century was the great slave war, which broke out in that island in 135-4 B. C. It is effectively described by Dr. Greenidge, who calls attention to the fact that the great number of slaves who had been imported from Northern Syria, and from Cilicia and other parts of Southern Asia Minor, gave it almost a sort of national character. The revolted slaves organized themselves under capable leaders, chose a king who had the reputation of magical powers, though his military gifts were of small account—his name was Eunus, but he called himself Antiochus and his subjects Syrians—defeated Roman armies, stormed Roman camps, and held control of the centre of the island for many months. Enna, on its precipitous and all but impregnable height, was their capital, and they had another stronghold in Tauromenion (Taormina), now the favorite resort of tourists, for it stands in a wonderful position, commanding a landscape which has for beauty and variety few rivals in the world. They had at one time sixty thousand men in the field, and were not overcome till treachery had put the Romans in possession of Enna and of Taormina.

Concurrently with the depravation of the Roman plebs had gone a parallel depravation of the upper class. Wealth, luxury, and the passion for wealth which luxury induced, had corrupted the senatorial families and not a few of the equestrian order. Office had now become a means of gaining wealth, and, as baser motives came more and more to the front, the ancient sense of civic duty decayed. All this is well set forth with many illustrations from the private life of the rich in the years that followed the overthrow of the Seleucid Antiochus, the conquest of Macedonia, and the capture of Carthage; years in which the extension of Roman dominion had given a stimulus to trade and financial operations, and new forms of indulgence had been learnt from the East. It was these economic and social changes that brought about the Gracchan movement. There was a double discontent among the masses—discontent with their own conditions of life, discontent at seeing how much of the wealth that conquest brought had accrued to the ruling oligarchy, and at seeing also how selfishly the ruling class used it. The Gracchan movement sprang from this discontent, and was justified by it, though partly in its success by revolutionary means, partly in its failure to remove some of the evils it aimed at, that movement accelerated the process which was destroying the republican constitution.

Three chapters of this book (pp. 100 to 276) are devoted to the two Gracchi. They

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are extremely interesting, and parts of them are powerfully written. That Dr. Greenidge does not clear up the story and make it completely intelligible to us, is not to be laid against him as blame, for our authorities for the period are mostly late, and on many points scanty. Plutarch (in his Lives of the two Gracchi), Appian, and even Velleius Paterculus, are all compilers writing long after the events. Stray references from authors nearer the time, such as Cicero, and notices from the epitomes of lost books of Livy, serve hardly more to lighten the darkness than to make darkness visible. Nevertheless, while duly allowing for these difficulties, we sometimes feel that Dr. Greenidge might have done a little more to make his own view plain, and, in cases where no positive conclusion can be reached, to set the alternative views and the conditions of the problem more clearly before us. A second criticism may perhaps seem captious. The Gracchan movement has two aspects—the Agrarian, which raises questions primarily economic; the Constitutional, which is concerned with politics. The former at least of these might be illustrated if not elucidated by references to the parallel agrarian problems which other countries have at various times had to solve. Nothing has been a more fertile source of trouble in growing communities than questions relating to land. From the days of the Hebrew prophets and from the days of Solon, land questions have led to complaints, sometimes to civil strife, sometimes to revolutionary projects of legislation. The proposals of the Gracchi and the way in which they were worked out remind us often of troubles and claims that have arisen in Ireland—claims which were dealt with by the British Legislature in 1870 and 1881, and which are not yet altogether settled. Sicily has a land question at this moment. Dr. Greenidge would have given a little more actuality to his treatment of the agrarian laws at Rome had he referred occasionally to the experience of modern countries; for though none of these presents a case quite like that of Rome, the analogies they show are instructive. The picture of Tiberius Gracchus which our author gives is well drawn; and still more striking is that of Gaius, the younger brother. To give a notion of Dr. Greenidge's manner we extract some remarks upon the oratory of Gaius:

"Those who were about [Gaius] Gracchus must soon have seen that the traces of youth were to be found only in his passion, his frankness, his impetuous vigor. No discerning eye could fail to be aware of the cool, calculating intellect which unconsciously used emotion as its mask, of a mind that could map and plan a political campaign in perfect self-confident security, view the country as a whole, and yet master every detail, and then leave the issue of the fight to burning words and passionate appeals. This supreme combination of emotional and artistic gifts, which made Gracchus so irresistible as a leader, was strikingly manifested in his oratory. We are told of the intensity of his mien, the violence of his gestures, the restlessness that forced him to pace the rostra and pluck the toga from his shoulder, of the language that roused his hearers to an almost intolerable tension of pity or indignation. Nature had made him the sublimest, because the most unconscious, of actors: eyes, tone, gesture, all answered the bidding of the magic words. Sometimes the emotion was too highly strung; the words would become coarser, the voice harsher, the faultless sentences would grow confused, until the soft tone of a flute blown by an attendant slave would recall his mind to reason and his voice to its accustomed pitch. . . . Yet the man thus attuned to passion was, what every great orator must be, a painful student of the most delicate of arts. The language of the successful demagogue seldom becomes the study of the schools; yet so it was with Gracchus. The orators of a later age, whose critical appreciation was purer than their practice, could find no better guide to the aspirant for forensic fame than the speeches of the turbulent tribune. Cicero dwells on the fulness and richness of his flow of words, the grandeur and dignity of the expression, the acuteness of the thought. They seemed to some to lack the finishing touch, which is equivalent to saying that with him oratory had not degenerated into rhetoric. The few fragments that survive awaken our wonder, first, for their marvellous simplicity and clearness, then for the dexterous perfection of their form. The balance of the rhythmic clauses never obscures or overloads the sense" (pp. 191-193).

The narrative of the careers of the two Gracchi and of the way they used the tribunate, renews the astonishment which every student of Roman history feels when he watches the working of the constitution, and asks himself how it could possibly have worked. The tribuneship, especially, is an extraordinary institution, hardly to be paralleled in any other country. Nor is anything stranger than the mingling among the Romans of an intense legality with a frequent acquiescence in startling breaches of the law, and a strange impunity accorded to those who had broken it. Perhaps Dr. Greenidge will try, in the next two volumes of his book, to clear up some of the constitutional enigmas which the doings of the Gracchi as tribunes set in so strong a light.

The chief subject of the later chapters is the long war with the Numidian Jugurtha, which revealed two things scarcely known before—the corruptibility of many of the leading men in Rome, and the unsuitability of the Roman army and Roman strategy for irregular warfare in a wild country. The Numidian forces were undisciplined barbarians, who could seldom resist the legionaries in a set fight. But it took many campaigns and some reverses to vanquish them. Such an enemy would in modern times be easily overcome by the superior guns and long-range rifles of a European nation. The difference between civilized man and semi-civilized man is for the purposes of war far greater now than it ever was before. The Romans showed some want of quickness in not sooner apprehending the nature of the problem before them, and this inaptitude reminds one of the British in the beginning of their recent war in South Africa. Was Dr. Greenidge thinking of that war when he wrote: "A war which it is difficult to justify and still more difficult to remember with satisfaction may be the necessary result of a radically unsound system of administration; and the disasters which it entails may be equally the consequences of a military system excellent in itself, but ill-adapted to the circumstances of the country in which the struggle is waged"? (p. 469).

We shall look with curiosity for the remaining volumes of this History, and especially for the next two volumes, which are to bring the narrative down to the death of Julius Cæsar. The wide and accurate knowledge of the authorities which Dr. Greenidge shows, will be particularly valuable in a period where a connected story has to be pieced out of a great many different and sometimes discrepant sources. The period of the early Principate is easier to deal with, and presents us with fewer political as well as fewer personal problems. It has, however, so much importance for all later times as being the period which gave Roman institutions the shape in which they descended to and moulded the new nations of mediæval Europe, that we hope to see our author go forward to the full completion of his task. He may enhance the value of future volumes by prefixing or appending a Chronological Table of Events, and by a short account of the chief original authorities on whom he relies, such as it is now usual to find in books of history. It is not well to appear to write mainly for scholars; for the number of persons seeking to understand Roman history is increasing faster than the number of scholars who can dispense with these simple aids.

RECENT POETRY.

The hopeful promise of 'The Heart of the Road,' Miss Anna Hempstead Branch's first book of verse, is well on the way to fulfilment in her second, 'The Shoes that Danced, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Miss Branch is still irresistibly a poet of wonder, but her range has widened notably. In the present volume, the variety of form seems to foretell a growing diversity of note. There are sinewy dramatic sketches, meditative monologues, child verses, lyric odes, and fragments of romantic narrative, all marked by fluent, unconventional music, and strong, unconventional phrase. Yet the mood of wonder that underlies all of it is singularly integral. It is as insistent in "The Shoes that Danced," a gay, tragic little drama of Watteau and the French court, as in such a piece as "The Riders," where Miss Branch has employed more of the traditional accessories of romantic glamour. Through all her work is woven the motive of this rather startling stanza of "The Riders":

"Strange times have galloped through my mood!
(Ride, quoth he.)
Old cities dance along my blood!
(Ride, quoth he.)
'Tis Sodom has an adder's tongue—
But oh, what songs has Venice sung!
With piercing Troy have I been stung,
Gomorrah through my heart has swung!
'Twas so with Christ when he was young!
(Ride, quoth he.)"

Yet to what fine poetic use is this motive turned in the following stanzas of one of her lyrics:

"Oh, grieve not, ladies, if at night
Ye wake to feel your beauty going.
It was a web of frail delight,
Inconstant as an April snowing.

Think not the watchful dim despair
Has come to you the first, sweet-hearted!
For oh, the gold in Helen's hair!
And how she cried when that departed!

Perhaps that one that took the most,
That swiftest borrower, wildest spender,
May count, as we would not, the cost—
And grow more true to us and tender. . . .

"Oh, grieve not, Ladies, if at night
Ye wake, to feel the cold December!
Rather recall the early light
And in your loved one's arms, remember."

Not the least hopeful quality of Miss Branch's work is the amount of mind-work that lies back of the wonder. This is perhaps less impressive in the odes, where the thought is sometimes blurred by a little too exuberant fancy, than in a curious

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"monologue in regard to heredity" called "The Descendant and the Id." Through the imagination of the Descendant, a very modern sort of person, passes the tragical pageant of his myriad ancestors, and he trembles at the Fate that for modern men and women no longer lowers from the skies, but flows intricately in the blood:

"How strangely woven of their pain and bliss
Is my soul's fabric. I was wrought of this—
Their exquisite and unforgivable kiss.

So of this dual breathing was I made,
Fragile, eternal, wonderful, afraid,
Rapturous, guilty, flaunting, and dismayed,

While their thin laughter echoing in my bone
Reminds me that my flesh is not my own.
Hands off, hands off, and let my soul alone!

I cannot blame them for the deed they did,
Bearing in me the small satiric Id—
The reproachful secret in the pyramid. . . .

In all the woven tissue of my doom
What thread is mine? What thread? Wrapped in a gloom
Strange hands have whirled the pattern from the loom.

And my young dreams of cloud and fire and star,
Of powers and splendors, shining from afar,
Fade from that web where those dim workers are."

At the last, however, the Descendant stands invincibly captain of his soul:

"Apart, above, beneath, within,
I laugh at this vast heritage of sin.
That God that made me armed my soul to win.

Slowly I feel the ancient custom fall
Like shattered rain from off a steady wall,
And great 'I will' is stronger than them all.

For if those hordes that terribly must ride
Drive through my heart and leave their grief inside,
God also wanders there at eventide.

Man from the dust and woman from the bone—
But oh, we were not wrought of these alone!
God with his Heavenly spirit breathed thereon.

Last night the old ancestral pageant came,
Bearing the ancient virtue and the shame.
God, in my hand, had written a New Name."

For all the intellectual energy and sincerity of Miss Branch's work, and its frank preoccupation with the more passionate issues of life, it never ceases to be finely feminine in a certain lurking wistfulness and tenderness in little things. When she has grown still further in artistic grace, and mastered more perfectly the occasional violences of her mood, we shall look to her for still more significant work.

To turn to 'The Fleeing Nymph, and Other Verse,' by Lloyd Mifflin (Small, Maynard & Co.), is to turn from the poetry of inspiration to the poetry of art, from the modern romantic to the modern classic mood. None of the shorter pieces in Mr. Mifflin's volume is very notable. All have the grace that comes from the sparing, delicate use of words; many are picturesque and pleasing in conception; but there is a certain softness of tone in them that is not wholly a pleasant softness. Yet if there is a lack of pith and fibre in Mr. Mifflin's lyrics that makes against the permanence of the impression left by them, his narrative poetry (when the subject is given him, as in the story of Pan and Syrinx, which forms the fable of "The Fleeing Nymph") is, after all, admirable. In "The Fleeing Nymph" he approaches a classic myth not so much with the passionate absorption of the school of Keats as with the more considerate delight of the school of Landor. There is a conscious Tennysonian suavity in his verse that hinders it from ever attaining quite the cool distinction of Landor's; yet the poem as a whole is a fabric of quiet loveliness. The concluding passage, with its subtly interwoven repetends of sound, its pensive, soft-flowing cadence, is a choice example of that species of poetry which charms men by its very remoteness from their business and bosoms:

"But thou, O Syrinx, Later Sweetness, Thou!
If that thou lookest from his doors of pearl,
Return, return to these Ladonian dells,
Through these Ladonian dells return to me—
To me more ardent than that stripling youth
Whose lily-fingers linger on his lyre
In tedious murmurs every eve and morn!

. . . . . .

Lost though she be, yet ever do I note
Her voice within the hollows of my pipe—
My flute that whispers of the Nymph I loved:
And while the twilight lingers in the West,
And croons the bittern in the crimsoned pool;
When airs from out the marshes move the sedge,
Stirring the borders to melodious sighs,
Then, as the darkness gathers and I look
Deep in the dusky reeds, I seem to hear
Her breathings through the gloaming, and to see
Her beauty glimmer like a silver star."

In his volume of 'Odes and Elegies' (George William Browning), Mr. Clinton Scollard shows himself well endowed with a poet's ideality, possessed of a good mastery of difficult metre, and a good command, perhaps a too good command, of poetic diction. If no poem in the book is quite memorable, it is largely because of a lack of the last intensity and vigor of conception. It is none the less pleasant reading for a person fond of the traditional in poetry. How good in their way, despite a certain instability of phrase, are these concluding stanzas of an ode "On a Copy of Keats's Endymion":

"But ah, what mournful memories are mine,
Song-wakened at this lavish summer-tide!
Can I forget that sombre cypress line
By old Rome's ruined wall,
The lonely grave that alien grasses hide,
The deep, pathetic silence shrouding all?
Who would forget? Blest be the song that bears
My soul across aerial seas of space
As wingedly as airy fancy fares!
For now that earth's worn face
The radiant glow of life's renewal wears,
Would I in reverence seek that sacred place.

There would I lay these woven shreds of rhyme
In lieu of scattered heart's-ease and the rose.
Behold how Song has triumphed over Time,
For still his song rings clear,
Though now the century falters to its close
And he has slumbered many a fateful year!
If to the poet's rapt imaginings
Beauty be wed, with love of purpose high,
Despite the cynic and his scornful flings
Song shall not fail and die,
But like the bird that up the azure springs
Still thrill the heart, still fill the listening sky!"

In 'Words for Music,' a "symphonic series," by William Wells Newell (Small, Maynard & Co.), a mild and rather wordy mysticism sometimes bears poetic fruit in verse of a pleasing, gossamer-like tenuity. Mr. Newell is frequently unable to fit the article, whether definite or indefinite, in to his metre. On such occasions he usually leaves it out altogether, to the damage of his poetic style. His verse contains, moreover, many undissolved particles of prose; as in these stanzas from an auspiciously launched lyric:

"From billows haughty approacheth
A ship under press of sail;
She flingeth the spray from her quarter,
And over the wave doth prevail.

Behind, toward horizon, declineth
Another erstwhile as proud;
Look aft where her topsail shineth;
Or only a glimmering cloud?"

At its best, however, as in "Moonlight," fleeting but poetic moods are expressed with a delicate ingenuity:

"The breathing of Ocean
Is peaceful to-night;
The golden Moon bindeth
His bosom with light.

Her glory in heaven
Doth reign and prevail;
Its torches she quencheth
In mystery pale.

The chamber she floodeth
Where calm thou dost lie;
Thy dream be illumined
As water and sky!"

Paul Laurence Dunbar's 'Lyrics of Sunshine and Shadow' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) are more of sunshine than of shadow. Mr. Dunbar's poetic inspiration is slender but sincere. He can on occasion weave in verse the mood of twilight mystery that for the average man passes as the poetry of life, but he is at his best in simple ballad measures, writing of the common joys of health and out-of-doors. There is a pleasurable gusto in "A Boy's Summer Song":

"'Tis fine to play
In the fragrant hay,
And romp on the golden load;
To ride old Jack
To the barn and back,
Or tramp by a shady road.
To pause and drink,
At a mossy brink;
Ah, that is the best of joy,
And so I say
On a summer's day,
What's so fine as being a boy? Ha, Ha!

With line and hook
By a babbling brook,
The fishermen's sport we ply;
And list the song
Of the feathered throng
That flit in the branches nigh.
At last we strip
For a quiet dip;
Ah, that is the best of joy,
For this I say
On a summer's day,
What's so fine as being a boy? Ha, Ha!"

A certain wholesome objectivity and clean virility of expression make Mr. William J. Neidig's 'The First Wardens' (Macmillan), an uncommonly readable first book of verse. Mr. Neidig is particularly good at telling a romantic story, as in his "Mission Carmel", and in intimating a romantic situation, as in his sonnet sequence entitled "A Woman's Ring"; yet there is, withal, a lack of temperament in his work that suggests a lack of real inspiration, and makes the reader wonder whether, for all the cleanness of his metrical workmanship, he might not have done better in prose. Mr. Neidig's quality is nowhere seen to better advantage than in "The King's Fool":

"A Fool it was, and took his Soul
Within his hollowed hands;
He took his Soul and smoothed it calm,
And loosed its strained bands.

'O Soul,' he cried, 'you bear the stain
Of chain-gyves interwove!
Who did this thing?' The Soul replied:
'It was the friend I love.'

'O Soul, you have a flaming brand
Burned on your nakedness!
Who did this thing?' The Soul replied:
'That was a pure caress.

'O Soul, a fissure shows your heart
Like wound of bloody sword!
Who did this thing?' The Soul replied:
'That was a friendly word.'

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'O Soul, you shrink within my hand,
I scarce see where you be!
Who did this thing?' The Soul replied:
'A woman pitied me.'

The Fool laid down his Soul and wept,
And knelt him down beside;
He soothed and questioned all the night,—
No soul of him replied."

'The Harem, and Other Poems,' by Aloysius Coll (Badger), turns out upon perusal to be a less startling collection than would appear from its title. Mr. Coll is, indeed, an honest sort of poet. While his work never has the last touch of distinction, whether of form or of substance, and even misses doggerel but narrowly, it does contain both thought and feeling, and it does reveal not only a wide range of reading and an unaffected love of nature, but even something of a vein of humor. Add to these Mr. Coll's rather uncommon metrical fluency, and we have a sheaf of qualities which should go far toward making his work, if not fine poetic art, at any rate popular. Despite its technical faults, his ingenious "October Paradox" is a good specimen of his work:

"All summer long the zephyr wooed the leaf
In vain with pleasing suns and driving storms;
Then sullen came and went, his ardor lost,
His greeting curt, his word a breath of frost—
Red blushed the leaf, and swooned into his arms.

Long summer days I wooed my love in vain,
Flouted to scorn by lake and changing sea;
I met her, brown October in my mood,
Frost in my heart and autumn in my blood—
Straightway she smiled, and gave herself to me.

Since the death of Calverley, we have had no such master of the fine art of parody as Mr. Owen Seaman. His most recent collection, 'A Harvest of Chaff' (Henry Holt & Co.), contains perhaps no single piece quite so witty and memorable as some that have made his earlier volumes delightful. It is, however, in many ways a riper book than any of the others. The humor of it, while quieter, is more subtle, and the phrase and versification of a more finished poetic style. The inclusion in the volume of a handful of admirable elegies encourages the expectation that Mr. Seaman may before long turn the resources of his poetic skill to serious work. However that may be, his humorous verse is not likely soon to be forgotten, especially when it is so good as in these stanzas from "The New Renaissance":

"I saw him in his yearning youth,
Before the change that brought the heart's ache,
A plunger down the wells of Truth,
And sworn to follow Art for Art's sake.
O frost that nips the nascent rose!
O bloom that prematurely blithers!
How could we then foresee the close
Of Andrea del Resarto Smithers?

"The Editor of Brush and Plume,
A man of sound commercial fibre,
Thought Andrea's art might be a boom
And catch the better-class subscriber;
But often, owing to the stress
Of more immediate local matters,
That graphic print would go to press
Without his prancing nymphs and satyrs.

"Then came the sudden Kodak phase,
When Art was shelved for Actualities,
The Living-Types-of-Beauty craze,
Stage Frights and semi-nude banalities;
Back flew the latest masterpiece
Enclosed with editorial strictures:
'These contributions now must cease;
No further use for fancy pictures.'

"The blow, although no blood was spilt,
Could hardly fail to wring the withers
Of one so delicately built
As Andrea del Resarto Smithers;
He bowed before the crushing fates,
Then rose again by nice gradations,
And now he does the fashion plates
Published in Woman's Transformations.

" 'Tis true he owns a sumptuous flat
Who once conversed with gods in garrets;
I grant he's growing sleek and fat
On turtle soup and vintage clarets;
But none the less when I recall
The former hopes on which he fasted,
I recognize the moral fall,
The great career untimely blasted."

The 'Later Poems' of John White Chadwick (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a posthumous volume of pathetic interest. Though poetry with Mr. Chadwick was but the occasional pleasure of a life crowded with important work of many kinds, his poetic product was of a ripeness which shows, if not genius, at any rate talent of the first order. Mr. Chadwick had both scholarship and feeling, and in his imagination there ran a strain of natural Wordsworthianism, touched at times with intellectual subtlety, but never departing from an effective simplicity of utterance. The greater part of the pieces in the present volume are occasional hymns or poems, written for celebrations or reunions of divers sorts. None of these, perhaps, has much enduring poetic vitality, but there are other poems, the product of impulse rather than of occasion, such as "A Common Weed," "My Father's Quadrant," or the group of fine sonnets upon national issues, which should have a good chance of life in the anthologies. In none of his pieces, perhaps, is there ampler utterance than in his "Timeo Danaos":

"Art proud, my country, that these mighty ones,
Wearing the jewelled splendor of old days,
Come bringing prodigality of praise
To thee amid thy light of westering suns;
Bidding their blaring trumpets and their guns
Salute thee, late into their crooked ways
Now fallen; to their sorrow and amaze,
Blood of whose hearts the ancient honor runs?

Nay, fear them rather, for they cry with glee,
'She has become as one of us, who gave
All that she had to set a people free:
She wears our image—she that loved the slave!'
Fear them, for there is blood upon their hands,
And on their heads the curse of ruined lands."

'Seléné,' by the Princess Troubetzkoy, better known as Amélie Rives (Harpers), is an interesting experiment in narrative poetry drawn from classic sources. The poem deals chiefly with the compunctions of Seléné between the time of her first sight of Endymion and the time of her yielding to her passion for him. Through the major part of the long piece the Princess has written admirable blank verse. If she has not always been very successful in maintaining the cool, classic note, the poem is none the less interesting to modern sensibilities. We are inclined to think that, in her endeavor to humanize the fable, she has gone too far in making Endymion a kind of idyllic *divorcé*, one who

"had known
The sapping, slow, brain-sucking misery
That falls upon the passionate whom error
Unto the passionless hath bound."

This materializes a little too much the struggle in Seléné's heart between maidenhood and womanhood, and roils the old Latmian idyl without adding perceptibly in compensation to its power over the imagination. The Princess is at her best, perhaps, in the passages of fanciful embroidery wherein, giving the rein to her imagination, she decks her theme with cumulative musical loveliness that recalls, in its delicate unction, the way of the old poets in such matters. When Love, for example, is invoked by Seléné to debate her case with her, he comes in

"a boat
Of thinnest ivory, winged with golden wings,
Wherein the god stood upright, veiled soft
In the warm aura of his loveliness.
Deep and yet delicate the orange haze
Shed from his scattered hair. His own bright wings
Were lightly shut, nor did he guide his boat
Aerial, of grain so fragile fair
That with his radiance from within it glowed
Like to an alabaster vase where through
A rose-gold flame doth glimmer. Slope it came
As though by subtle instinct thus impelled,
Straight to the rock whereon was poised Diana,
Its luminous keel shearing the curdled clouds
That ever froth and melt like noiseless foam
Upon the silent ocean of the air;
Its vans crip rustling, even as autumn leaves,
Made gold by frost, on frosty breezes rustle;
Its wreaths of small, red roses sweeping out
Against the glittering pallor of the waves,
While ever softly showered the petals fine,
In crimson spray about the gleaming prow."

In Mr. Percy Mackaye's tragedy, 'Fenris the Wolf' (Macmillan), we pass to another mythology—that of the North. The play is an uncommonly bold piece of imagination. Fenris the Wolf, son of Odin, troubles the serenity of Heaven with his barkings of defiance, and with his wolfish desire for Freyja, the betrothed of his brother Baldur. In the prologue, Odin ordains that Fenris, Baldur, Freyja, and himself shall leave their heavenly estate and become incarnate in the persons of four mortals. Fenris becomes Egil the Hunter, Baldur assumes the dwarfed and twisted form of his brother Arfi, Freyja of Thordis, a maiden beloved of both Egil and Arfi, while Odin himself enters the body of Ingimund, one of his priests. The action of the play consists in the conversion of the fierce hunter Egil to charity and human love. It concludes with his renunciation of Freyja to Baldur after the latter assumes his old immortal form. In setting and atmosphere the play is highly poetic. The action passes before rune-stones in the northern forest at daybreak or twilight, in prison chambers, and by deep forest pools. Though it closely skirts the borders of the fantastic, it never becomes, at least for a reader who has served his initiation to the music-drama of Wagner, quite fantastic. Mr. Mackaye has made excellent poetic use of his knowledge of Scandinavian poetry. In the recurrent wail of Fenris, for example, how faithful is the reproduction of the cadence and color of the alliterative stavê—

"Free me Freyja! Frore am I, frost-bit;
Go we together into greenwood glad!
Mirk under moon-mist mad will meet thee,
Hunt thee from hiding, thy heart-beats hear."

Fenris is the only character who speaks in Scandinavian metre. The others all use blank verse of a nervous, sometimes a little too nervous, quality. As a whole, the play fails a little of tragic impressiveness precisely because of a certain forcing of the note. Mr. Mackaye has a very unusual gift for strong phrase, but at times he lets it become of a somewhat hysterical strength. He has, also, a gift for the strong situation, and he lets this seduce him toward the end into too long a series of strong situations, which gives something of feverishness to the last half of the play, and robs it of the dignity of tragic mat-

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ters marching to a single tragic conclusion. It is, nevertheless, a poetic venture, of a sincerity and magnitude for which there can be nothing but admiration. It shows hard work, and, in the lurking symbolism of the taming of Fenris—the subduing, that is, of the wolf in the breast—Mr. Mackaye shows himself capable of endowing an ancient tale with modern meaning; which is, after all, the root of the whole matter.

Shakespeare's London. By Henry Thew Stephenson, Assistant Professor of English, Indiana University. Illustrated. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. vi., 357.

Of all epochs of London history, none can compare in interest with the London of Shakspere, the subject of this book. We say this, not forgetting the claims of the London of Johnson, Burke, Goldsmith, and Reynolds. But the supreme genius of Shakspere invests the London of his day with overwhelming interest. It is strange that in London, where change is so gradual that even in a long life little seems to be altered, the accumulation of changes should be so great that we can only with difficulty form an incomplete mental picture of the London of three hundred years ago, and this although, in the main lines of the streets in central London, London is still mediæval. So it is, however. Fortunately, the era had its historian, John Stow, Merchant Taylor, whose book is, and to the end of time must remain, the chief source of our knowledge of Shakspere's London. Stow, the learned historiographer, whose devoted labors received so poor a recognition in his own day, has the faculty of inspiring something almost of affection in students of his 'Annals and Survey of London.' It is not, therefore, surprising to find that Mr. Stephenson speaks of him in terms of warm appreciation.. He quotes the eulogy of Stow written by his continuator, Edmond Howes, adding for his own part, "Stow hardly needs a word of praise, nor is there need of any insistence on his value as a writer concerning the manners of the Elizabethan age." The Survey of London, he tells us, "is the one book to which all students of the Elizabethan city must go for much of their material." The only exception to be taken to Mr. Stephenson's praise of Stow is when he refers to the superstitious beliefs held by Stow in common with every Elizabethan. The great Queen herself, when on her way to St. Paul's in 1588, did not disdain to receive from an officer of her privy chamber "a Crapon or Toade stone set in gold." A learned book, 'The Mirror of Stones,' tells us that the best kind of Crapon stone, possessed of wondrous virtues, and but rarely found, is that taken out of a dead toad while still panting. Shakspere himself, as we may infer from "Hamlet," "in part believed" that at Christmastide the bird of dawning singeth all night long, and that then no spirit dares stir abroad, no fairy takes, nor witch hath power to harm. There is no reason to doubt that he really believed in witchcraft. Such beliefs were of the time. We confess that, for us, the pages of the old Chronicles, not seldom dull, are brightened by stories of monstrous births of children, calves, and lambs, of great fishes cast ashore—huge monsters of the deep, often with the face of a man. We like to read of "blazing starres," of what they foretold, and of the fulfilment of the portents. We should have but an incomplete picture of the times did these references to strange beliefs not find their place.

Stow is not, indeed, our only direct guide to Shakspere's London. Belonging to this time we have the maps of Norden, the so-called map of Aggas, and the map about fifty years earlier than Norden's in the collection of Braun and Hogenberg. The value of this last map is, perhaps, not yet fully estimated. Mr. Stephenson has supplemented his study of Stow by that of all other available material. He quotes from the old dramatists, from Dekker, Harrison; Taylor, the Water Poet; from Fynes Morrison, and a host of other writers. The preface contains a graceful acknowledgment of assistance given in the libraries of the British Museum and the Guildhall, so we learn that Mr. Stephenson pursued his studies of Shakspere's London on the spot. The result is an excellent summary of great value to lovers of the old city and to students of the Elizabethan period. Mr. Stephenson roams in every quarter of the city; he has chapters on Old St. Paul's, the Water Front, the Tower, the Theatres, on Tavern Life; he guides us through the main streets, as Cheapside, Holborn, and the Strand. Where all is so good, it is almost invidious to mention certain divisions of the book, but perhaps the chapters on the Water Front and Military Companies show in an especial degree research into some of the less-known phases of London life at this time.

We have noted only one or two quite minor points on which we are not sure that Mr. Stephenson is correct. One is the difficult subject of the "bridges" in the Strand and other places. "There were three bridges over the Strand," says Mr. Stephenson, the Strand Bridge, Ivy Bridge, and a third opposite to the end of Essex Street." But were these "bridges" *over* the Strand? Were they not rather in the direction of the length of the street? Stow says: "Then had ye in the high street a fair bridge called Strand Bridge, and under it a lane or way down to the landing-place on the bank of the Thames." These stairs or landing-places were also called "bridges"; in Rocque's map they are marked as Ivy Bridge and Strand Bridge; these names, however, probably did not indicate the locality near which a passenger was landed. From the passage in Stow it seems clear that the "bridge" must have been at right angles to the lane, and therefore in the line of the main street. This is confirmed by a passage in Howes's continuation of Stow's Annals. In this, under date 1614, he says: "At this time the citizens began their new pavement of broad freestone close to their shops" (the footway, the streetway, was paved earlier) "and the taking down of all high causies [causeways] about London, namely in the Strand," etc. It would seem as though these "bridges" foreshadowed, in a way, the elevated railroads of to-day.

Mr. Stephenson speaks of "the grand tour" as existing in the Elizabethan age. But does not the grand tour belong to later times, its records culminating in Childe Harold's Pilgrimage? Foreign travel was indeed common enough among young men of family in Shakspere's day, as we may see from Ascham's 'Schoolmaster.' But Ascham complains that the young men went only to Italy, unlike the godly and excellent learned Englishmen who, when driven out of England, went to Germany.

The printer has occasionally, not methodically, misspelt some names, as, Latimore for Latimer, and one or two others. These little blemishes should be corrected in a new edition which we may confidently look for. The book is worthy to have a much fuller index. The illustrations are particularly well chosen, many of them from prints or views not accessible to the general reader, and the reproductions are excellent. In almost all cases the original of the illustration is mentioned.

Alaska and the Klondike. By John Scudder McLain. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1905. 8vo, pp. xvi., 330. Illustrated.

When the special sub-committee of the Senate Committee on Territories visited Alaska in the summer of 1903, the author obtained permission to accompany the party in an unofficial capacity, and the materials comprised in the present publication were, in their original form, contributed to a Minneapolis newspaper. They have since been revised, and the industrial statistics brought up to include the business operations reported for the season of 1904.

The route taken was the usual one by the inside passage to Skagway, thence to Dawson by rail and river steamer, and down the Yukon to St. Michael. Here the party were met by the revenue cutter *McCulloch*, which took them to Nome, the Seal Islands, Unalashka, Kadiak Island, Valdes, Sitka, Juneau, and back to Seattle. If the progress of a legislative committee, travelling in ten weeks over half as many thousand miles of river, sea, and railway, is not the most efficient mode of getting reliable information as to the nature and resources of a great and varied district, it is at least a tolerably certain way of obtaining the opinions as to their needs held by the population with which the party is brought in contact. These opinions naturally vary, and their fluctuation is well illustrated by the successive chapters in which Mr. McLain endeavors to report them. In matters of fact it is evident he has tried hard to be accurate and impartial; and, to one familiar with the country and conditions, it seems as if he had succeeded very well. Few of his statements can be designated as erroneous, and these are mostly of slight importance.

The author sums up his conclusions by stating that he is persuaded that Alaska is rich in minerals, timber, and fisheries, and he does not fear to include agricultural possibilities—of course, for local consumption; illustrating these by excellent photographs of vegetable products actually raised in the country and seen by him with his own eyes. He tells us that the commerce of Alaska for 1903 amounted to twenty-one million dollars, exclusive of a gold output of about seven millions more. It is officially stated that, since Alaska became American territory, it has exported furs, fish, and gold in about equal values to the amount of one hundred and fifty million dollars; the investments of American capital amount to about twenty-five millions, and the country

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has absorbed merchandise from the United States during the same period to a value of nearly one hundred million dollars.

The crying needs of the Territory at present are a properly paid and incorruptible body of officials, especially in the judicial department; better means of transportation to the interior goldfields; and a personal representative on the floor of Congress who is acquainted with the local conditions. If the means of supplying the two latter are beset with difficulty, it is all the more incumbent on Congress to furnish the former; bearing in mind that the conditions warrant a higher rate of pay than is required in a more accessible region, and that the average official, if not paid a just and reasonable salary, will in many cases feel himself ill-treated, and be ready to make up the deficiency in the ways so easy in his position. Two or three small revenue cutters distributed along the coast and cruising regularly within a certain district, the commander being authorized to exercise a police-justice's functions and powers, or to be accompanied by some one in such capacity, these vessels to be at the disposition of the Governor for transportation at any time—would exert a very beneficial influence on the coast population. A qualified surgeon with suitable outfit on each ship might make himself most useful. The distances are rarely appreciated by those unfamiliar with the country, and the Governor at present has no real power, besides being insufficiently remunerated. These things have been said many times, but it seems that only by constant reiteration can any attention be secured. The inefficiency of a republic in the management of colonies has been only too evident in Alaska for more than thirty years. With all the political bias in favor of the "white man," as against his darker brothers, it seems as if the latter have so far monopolized the wisdom and benevolent attention of our national legislature to the almost complete exclusion of the "higher" race.

Mr. McLain's book is profusely illustrated with very good half-tones, many from original photographs, and will doubtless do its part in disseminating much-needed information in regard to our most valuable and yet most neglected colony.

Primitive Traits in Religious Revivals: A Study in Mental and Social Evolution. By Frederick Morgan Davenport, Professor in Sociology at Hamilton College. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

This book is a valuable and highly interesting contribution to the many recent discussions of the place and value of the emotions in moral and religious development. The increasing freedom, in colleges and theological schools, from dogmatic pressure to reach foregone conclusions has resulted in opening to scientific exploration fields of inquiry concerning beliefs and customs which hitherto have been forbidden because sacred territory.

One such fascinating domain is traversed by Professor Davenport in an analysis of the characteristic features of the periodic epidemic outbreaks popularly known as revivals of religion—epidemics which are not peculiar to the Christian Church, but which rather, as our author shows, belong to elements of human nature which are traceable among all sorts of communities the world over. In the presentation of the physical and psychological aspects of a few of the most notable and typical revivals of modern Christianity, in comparison with similar manifestations outside of the Christian Church, Professor Davenport has shown a refreshing freedom from obscurantism and apology, with a frankness of search into the shortcomings of the men and eras dealt with, coexistent with full and tender reverence for the genuine exercise of feeling in its aspirations after nobler ideals and holier living.

The best-known revivals in recent Christian communities which our author passes in review, are those under Edwards in New England and Wesley in Great Britain, in the eighteenth century, the Scotch-Irish awakenings in Kentucky in 1800, and Charles G. Finney's evangelism in the middle of the nineteenth century. With the close of Finney's especial hortatory gatherings and his assumption of the Presidency of Oberlin College, the inflammable era of revivalism practically came to an end. Mr. Moody, while beginning his public services with appeals to the lower susceptibilities of his hearers, eventually assumed much of the attitude of the regular preacher in a pulpit; such effects as he produced of a remarkable sort having been clearly due to certain personal qualities, hypnotic or magnetic, which our author maintains have been the secret of by far the larger part of the success of most professional revivalists. Given the magnetic man and now and then some special social and economic conditions, usually of a depressing character, and the phenomena of an epidemic revival, wholly unaccountable in the peculiar merit or novelty of the matter of the preaching or exhortation, straightway appeared, in former stages of intelligence.

While at the background of these revivals there is the awakened yearning of the soul for communion with the unseen world and a restoration of balance betwixt the imperfect life and the ideal holiness, they are uniformly attended, as they get under way, with purely physical and quasi-pathological manifestations of a violent type, such as catalepsies, swoonings, deliriums, and ecstasies of the imagination. And the bodily convulsions are too often the sole result of the protracted agonizings; the religious motive operating as a means of attaining the delicious intoxication of sensuous rapture, which being exhausted, the workaday life comes back with all its infirmities and sins. To-day the once very familiar and common excitable manifestation of the revival spirit is practically extinct, its chief survival in the United States being with the negroes of the Southern Black Belt.

The coincidence of this disappearance with the spread of general intelligence and of intercommunication between the intellectually backward and the more cultivated communities affords one of the weightiest justifications of the author's account of the physical phenomena, and many of the mental and moral manifestations, as relics of primitive humanity. In the process of his evolution from the animal, man carries with him, even up to a time of civilized life when the habit has lost all value and has become decidedly pernicious, his susceptibility to gusts of irrational passion and spasmodic activity; his nerves are not under control; ignorance of his surroundings in the mystery of nature begets one of the most powerful of influences—fear and its attendant superstitions. In a crowd, especially, where the individual is swallowed up so as to become a fragment of a common mob soul, this ancient nervous instability becomes predominant, and the man ceases to have a will.

One of the most striking illustrations of the essential revival fanaticism in conditions not pretending to be Christian is given in the story of the Ghost Dances which broke out in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast regions in the later eighties. These were not, as is commonly supposed, an outbreak of the war spirit among the Indians, although there was a Sioux uprising contemporaneous with some of these dances. They had chiefly a theological motive, the dream of a near-at-hand Messiah who should restore the united race of Indians, living and dead, to a paradise upon earth from which the white man was to be excluded; and in some cases a moral aim, which involved the abandonment of some of the bloody practices of self-maiming, and especially of the vices of drunkenness and gambling. While there was much that was downright mad and wholly repulsive in the fruits of these dances, there was also, as the Government representative who witnessed many of the frenzies bore sympathetic witness, a genuine emotion of hope of a better time to come for their race, expressed with streaming eyes and bodies trembling with mental distress. Tested by the occasional fruit of a purified morality, some of the extra-Christian congeners of revivals have as valid an evidence of divine inspiration as those of which, in Christian communities, so much has been made, in the reformation of here and there a carless or wicked soul.

The era of the highly emotional type of revivalism, in our author's judgment, is past beyond hope or desirability of return. In a lower stage of culture, when man had the minimum of reason and the maximum of sensuous impulse, appeals to terror had a measure of efficacy, in that they directed minds to higher obligations and realities than those of the time and flesh. Popular religious movements will continue to arise, but they will assume new forms in harmony with the new spirit of sober reflection and mastery of the impulsive nature by the rational will.

Sur la Pierre Blanche. Par Anatole France. Paris: Calmann-Lévy. 1905.

M. France's new book is a medley, but a medley of deep significance, for between its lines may be deciphered the profession of faith of one of the most humane and acute minds of the day. The visit of four French travellers to Rome supplies a thread for observations that embrace the whole of Christian civilization from the earliest times to the present, and even beyond. There is ample fare for all tastes. The classical student will find that these Frenchmen foregather with Giacomo Boni, and even dine with him in a not unknown *osteria* of the Via Condotti. The student of literature may take opportunity to compare M. France's conduct of an imaginary conversation between Gallio and St. Paul with the inimitable felicity of Landor in the same field. The lover of good things

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will delight in the constantly sparkling wit of the second half of the book.

In this second half, M. France leaves the ancient world, where he is perhaps not at his happiest, and discourses on matters more *actuel*, even on the Russo-Japanese war. Philosophy and wit lead him by either hand, as the following short extracts may testify:

[redacted]ons, enseigné aux Japonais le [redacted]ste et la guerre. Ils nous effraient [redacted]ils deviennent semblables à nous. Et vraiment c'est assez horrible. . . . L'empire russe oppose à l'énergie méthodique des Japonais ses forces indéterminées, que comprime l'imbécillité farouche de son gouvernement. . . ."

The book closes with a peep at the year 2270, one more fragment of evidence, if any were needed, that a marked concern for the future of the race is a distinctive feature of modern literature. From the numerous glimpses of his mind that Anatole France affords us in this book may be derived an impression. He may be taken as the spokesman of that small but remarkable group of Frenchmen that represents, in the domain of letters and politics, the idealism of the great Revolution chastened by the vicissitudes of a century, tempered by the experience of thirty years of power, a group that looks forward with enlightened and discreet enthusiasm to an approaching era of real humanity and civilization. One word of criticism, or regret, must be added, that in his knowledge of things American M. France appears to rely on nothing more substantial than boulevard journalism.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andersen's Fairy Tales. Edited by Sarah C. Brooks. Macmillan Co.
Blunck, A. Lessons on Form. Translated by David O'Conor. Bruno Hessling.
Browne, Henry. Handbook of Homeric Study. Longmans. $2 net.
Bryce, James. Marriage and Divorce.—Constitution. Henry Frowde.
Chevrillon, André. Sanctuaires et Paysages d'Asie. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Chinese Life in Town and Country. Adapted from the French by H. Twitchell. Putnams. $1.20 net.
Churchill, Winston. The Celebrity. Macmillan Co.
Cirot, Georges. Mariana Gistorien. Paris: Albert Fontemoing.
Clay, Charles M. Examples in Algebra. Macmillan Co.
Cody, Sherwin. How to Read and What to Read. The Art of Writing and Speaking the English Language. Chicago: The Old Greek Press.
Craddock, Charles Egbert. The Storm Centre. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Dickberry, F. The Storm of London. Boston: H. B. Turner & Co. $1.50.
Dilke, Lady. The Book of the Spiritual Life. Dutton. $3 net.
Doub, William C. A History of the United States. Macmillan Co. $1 net.
Duncan, Edmondstoune. Schubert. Dutton. $1.25.
Early Western Travels. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. S. H. Long's Expedition. Vol. III. Cleveland, O.: The A. H. Clark Co.
Elegies of Tibullus, The. Translated by Theodore C. Williams. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Fandel, Peter. The Judgment of Paris. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Fullerton, W. Morton. Terres Françaises. Paris: Armand Colin.
Gibson, William Hamilton. Our Native Orchids. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.35 net.
Glover, Thomas. An Account of Virginia. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell. 3s. 6d. net.
Goss, Charles Frederick. Husband, Wife and Home. Philadelphia: The Vir Publishing Co. $1 net.
Gunsaulus, Frank W. Paths to Power. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25 net.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, A Bibliography of. Compiled by Nina E. Browne. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hill, Headon. Millions of Mischief. Akron, O.: The Saalfield Publishing Co.
Libbey, William, and Franklin E. Hoskins. The Jordan Valley and Petra. 2 vols. Putnams. $6 net.
Longfellow's Hiawatha. Edited by Elizabeth J. Fleming. Macmillan Co.
Loring, Andrew. The Rhymer's Lexicon. Dutton. $2.50 net.
Lyrics and Incidental Music. By W. H. Hadow. Henry Frowde.
Macquoid, Percy. A History of English Furniture. Vol. II., Part VI. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Macquoid, Katharine S. Pictures in Umbria. Imported by Scribners. $1.50 net.
Matarazzo, Francesco. Chronicles of the City of Perugia, 1492-1503. Translated by Edward S. Morgan. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Maxwell, J. Metapsychical Phenomena. Putnams. $3.50.
McMurry, Charles A. Special Method in Arithmetic. Macmillan Co. 70 cents.
Meyers Konversations-Lexikon. Vol. X. Lemcke & Buechner.
Moore, Clarence B. Aboriginal Urn-Burial in the United States. Lancaster, Pa.: The New Era Publishing Co.
Paul, Louis. The Happy Life. Heink & Co.
Russian Jew in the United States, The. Planned and edited by Charles S. Bernheimer. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co.
Sheldon, E. S., and A. C. White. Concordanza delle Opere Italiane in Prosa e del Canzoniere di Dante Alighieri. Henry Frowde.
Smith, C. J. Letters of "Americus." The Spectator Co. $1.
Stray Leaves from a Soul's Book. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Tomlinson, May. Sound and Motion in Wordsworth's Poetry. Boston: Richard G. Badger. 50 cents net.
Wilder, Marshall P. The Suddy Side of the Street. Funk & Wagnalls Co.

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